

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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Forty-ninth Annual Meeting Postponed

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Published quarterly by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

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Reference to the minutes of the Forty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 4, 1936, as recorded on page 24 of Volume I, Number 1 shows the following official action authorizing this publication.

Upon recommendation of the Executive Committee the Association voted to adopt the report of the Committee on Publications appointed at the fortieth annual meeting.

The Committee on Publications of the Southern Association unanimously submits the following recommendations:

1. That a Southern Association Quarterly be issued.
2. That a board of five members be held responsible for securing an editor and supervising all matters pertaining to the publication and distribution of the Quarterly. This board is to be composed of the secretaries of the three commissions, the president and the secretary-treasurer of the Association.
- 3, 4. (These sections recommended as to the character of the four issues and made appropriation for publication. See page cited above.)

In accordance with these resolutions a Board of Publication was set up, the editor elected, and the editorial committee constituted to consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association acting with the editor.

North Carolina Schools in Wartime*

By J. HENRY HIGHSMITH

*Director, Division of Instructional Service, North Carolina State Department
of Public Instruction*

It was inevitable that public education should be vitally affected by the War since this global struggle affected every agency and every phase of the social, political, and economic life of the State. The schools have adjusted themselves successfully, but not without difficulty, to the vast changes brought about by the War. School administrators and teachers have been aware that a global war was going on and that they were obliged to gear their schools to the war effort. They have not thought in terms of "school as usual."

However, the schools have felt the effect of the War in many ways, a few of which will be considered in this discussion.

I. TEACHERS

Many teachers have left the profession since the War started. They may be accounted for as follows: entering military service, entering business or industry, taking Government jobs in Federal, State, or local service, retiring because of age or other reasons, women leaving to be married, going back into school systems in other teaching jobs, not being re-employed, leaving for other reasons. It is estimated that about 14 per cent of the teachers employed in the schools of the nation in 1942-43 left at the end of the school year, and that about 22 per cent of the teachers had left their occupations on account of demands growing out of the war emergency. This is characteristic of the situation in North Carolina.

There is a real shortage of teachers, particularly in such special fields or subjects as agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, physical and health education, commercial or business education, mathematics, science, and foreign languages, especially French and Spanish.

The shortage of teachers necessitated some changes in certification requirements. No changes were made in requirements for regular certificates—graduation from a four-year approved institution; but the State Board of Education, recognizing an emergency, made provision for the employment of teachers for 1944-45 on the following bases:

* This is the ninth in a series of articles dealing with schools under wartime conditions. We published in August and November articles on Florida, Kentucky, Georgia, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee.—EDITOR.

1. *Emergency A Rating*.—This rating is granted to a teacher who holds a Master's degree, but who does not have the credit required for a regular Class A Certificate. The salary schedule of the Class A Certificate applies in this case.
2. *Emergency B Rating*.—This rating is granted to a teacher who holds no certificate but who has graduated from a standard two-year normal school or who has credit for 90 semester hours or more of standard college work. The regular salary schedule of the Class B Certificate applies in this case.
3. *War Permit Rating*.—This rating is granted to a teacher who holds no certificate but who has credit for less than 60 semester hours of standard college credit. The salary in this case will be that which is now classified as "non-standard" on the State schedule.

It is well here to explain our regulations as to the validity of certificates:

1. High School Certificates

- a. *A Blanket Certificate*, issued under older certification rules, valid for teaching all subjects in the high school except Vocational Agriculture and Vocational Home Economics and for teaching throughout the elementary school.
- b. *The Subject Certificate* except as provided below continues to be valid only for teaching in the high school the subject or subjects appearing thereon:
 - (1) Certificates in Art, Music, and Physical Education are valid for teaching those subjects in both the elementary and secondary schools. Teachers who are assigned all the work in a given school in the special subjects of Art, Music or Physical Education may devote as much as one-third of their teaching time to other duties, without penalty in salary.
 - (2) Health, Physical Education, and Industrial Arts when not appearing on the certificate may be taught without penalty when recommended by the local superintendent, and when approved by the Divisions of Professional Service, Instructional Service, and Finance of the State Department.
 - (3) A teacher certified in any high school subject will be permitted to teach without penalty any phase of Business Education in which she has credit for as much as 6 semester hours. As an alternative for the 6 semester hours credit in Typing or Shorthand, certification from a college that prepares teachers of Commercial Education as to the applicant's proficiency would be accepted.

- (4) Except as noted in (1), (2) and (3) above, teachers holding subject certificates may teach all subjects in grades 7, 8 and 9 without penalty, if at least 50 per cent of the teaching in grade 10 or above is in the subject or subjects in which certified.
- (5) Except as provided in (1), (2) and (3) above, any teaching below the 7th grade on a subject certificate automatically causes a teacher to be rated out of field.

2. Grade Certificates

Elementary, Primary, Grammar Grade, and Graduate Elementary Certificates will be valid in grades 1-9 instead of only in grades 1-7.

There are extant certificates held by former teachers who may be interested in teaching again or may be prevailed upon to return to the profession. These certificates range all the way from an Elementary B (based on high school graduation) to a Class A—Primary, Grammar Grade or High School—(based on college graduation). All these certificates would be honored in 1944-45 subject to the renewal requirements. In brief the renewal requirements are these: A certificate which expired in 1931 or later would be valid through 1944-45 through action of the General Assembly. All other certificates would require a renewal credit of 6 semester hours earned since 1931. Without the renewal or legal extension by the legislature, the certificate would revert to one of the next lower Class, the Class A becoming B, the Class B becoming C, etc. In spite of these regulations some schools are without teachers, in some instances some small schools will be closed for the year 1944-45, and some other schools will operate without full complement of teachers. It is estimated that the shortage in the State will be about 750 teachers for the present session.

The employment of teachers who hold emergency certificates to teach in this State will lower the level or scholarship index of training. In 1942-43, the index was 790.5 for white teachers and 785.2 for Negro teachers (based on four years of high school and four years of college training), 800 meaning four full years of college training.

In 1941-42 the number of teachers with Class A certificates was 15,142; in 1942-43, 14,814 teachers; in 1943-44, 13,747 teachers. The number of Class A teachers this year is 1,067 less than three years ago, and class B teachers 1,395 less. The employment of poorly trained teachers is bound to affect the instructional program adversely.

The situation is further complicated by the reduction in number of trained teachers who are coming out of our colleges. This is well brought out in the following data.

Comparative Data on Teacher Output

1. The 1944 teacher output was 62.2 per cent of the 1941 output.
2. The per cent of 1944 college graduates who will teach in North Carolina in 1944-45 is 49 per cent of the 1941 graduates who taught in North Carolina in 1941-42.
3. Stated in another way, there was a reduction of 37.8 per cent in teacher output in 1944 over 1941, but a reduction of 50.6 per cent in the number who will teach in North Carolina in 1944-45 against the number of 1941 graduates who taught in 1941-42.
4. Stated in yet another form, there was a decrease of 37.8 per cent in the teacher output, but a decrease of 50.6 per cent in the number who actually chose to teach or who entered the teaching profession.
5. It is apparent from these data that an adequate supply of teachers in the future will depend not only upon increasing the number who will prepare to teach but even more upon actually attracting into the profession those who do not now prepare to teach.

Data on Teacher Output, North Carolina White Colleges, 1941

1. Number of June 1941 graduates who prepared to teach. 1,230
2. Number of June 1941 graduates who taught in 1941-42. 943
3. Per cent of 1941 June graduates prepared to teach who actually taught in North Carolina, 1941-42. 76.5%

Data on Teacher Output, North Carolina White Colleges, 1944

1. Number of June 1944 graduates who prepared to teach. 765
2. Number of June 1944 graduates who will teach in North Carolina, 1944-45. 466
3. Per cent of June 1944 graduates prepared to teach who actually will teach in 1944-45. 60.9%

The above data are based upon reports from all white senior colleges except Asheville College, Catawba College, Meredith College and Western Carolina Teachers College.

Teachers' salaries have been increased on account of the increase in the cost of living. The present salary scale, which still is inadequate, is the highest the State has ever had. The salary schedule provided for the following rates for 1944-45:

SALARY SCHEDULE 1944-45 (Basic Salary plus War Bonus)

Type of Certificate	Experience in Years											
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Graduate.....			136	140	144	150	155	158	161	164	167	172
Class A*.....	98	122	125	128	132	136	140	144	150	155		
Class B *†.....	97	101	104	108	111	115	119					
Class C *†.....	91	94	98	101	104	107						
Elem. A†.....	84	87	91	94	97							
Elem. B†.....	75	79	83	87								
Non-Std.†.....	71											

* Includes High School, Grammar Grade, and Primary Certificates.

† Indicates that \$.33 should be added in each case.

It should be kept in mind that Primary, Grammar Grade, and High School Class A Certificates are based upon four years of standard college work and have the same basic salary rating or classification.

II. CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the elementary school in this State has not undergone any radical change during the War period. In March, 1941, the General Assembly of North Carolina passed an Act to provide for the extension of the public school system to embrace twelve grades. Work on this program was well under way when the War began. Consequently, the curriculum developed incorporated many of the features which would have been added, no doubt, as a result of the War had they not been included in the Bulletin which was published in 1942.

From time to time textbooks have been adopted for supplementary use, particularly in the social studies. In addition the State Department of Public Instruction cooperated with the Office of Civilian Defense in the publication of a bulletin, "Ways to Victory on the Home Front."

While it does not apply directly to the curriculum, it might be stated here that elementary schools cooperated heartily in the various drives—collecting scrap iron, waste paper, and clothes, and selling War stamps and bonds. These activities were quite valuable from the standpoint of worthwhile experiences.

In the high school the curricular changes were more noticeable. Physical fitness was given primary and added emphasis. In response to a request from Governor J. Melville Broughton and in compliance with suggestions drawn up by a special committee appointed by the Governor, an

"Emergency Program of Health and Physical Education" was initiated by the State Department of Public Instruction immediately after the United States entered the War. In addition to the regular program carried on by the schools, it was proposed that health and physical education be set up as a required part of the curriculum for all boys in grades ten and eleven in eleven-year systems and grades eleven and twelve in twelve-year systems. It was recommended that the courses include the following:

1. A complete physical examination of all boys, the examination to be comparable to that given by the army.
2. A follow-up program to correct remedial defects revealed by the examination. The health service, it was stated, should be financed by parents when financially able; and when not, this service should be taken over as a community responsibility by health departments, welfare agencies, civic organizations, or by voluntary services of the medical profession.
3. A program of health instruction, including a study of nutrition, care of the body, sanitation, first aid, and prevention of communicable diseases. It was suggested that health instruction, including first aid, safety, home nursing, and nutrition be provided for all girls.
4. Physical education—games, athletics, and sports; rhythmic, swimming, and life saving, wherever possible; out-of-door activities, such as camping and hiking; informal activities and everyday skills, such as walking, cycling, etc.; and conditioning activities such as calisthenics or setting-up exercises.
5. Courses in safety, including fire prevention, safety against air raids, incendiary bombs, home and school safety, safety in recreation, industrial safety, traffic safety, and driver education were recommended whenever facilities and personnel made it possible.

The extent to which schools responded to the emergency recommendations is shown by the tabulated results as indicated in the Principals' Annual Reports for 1941-42. It should be remembered that the success of the program was achieved in spite of the fact that over half of all the men teachers of physical education resigned their jobs before the close of the school year and over ninety per cent at the end of the year.

	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Total</i>
Number given medical examinations.	28,194	11,547	39,741
Dental Examinations.	15,786	3,694	19,480
Number students enrolled in physical education.	44,423	46,086	90,509

Number students enrolled in health and safety:

Nutrition.....	37,597
First Aid.....	43,311
Communicable disease.....	26,092
Safety.....	37,088

The physical examinations were endorsed by the North Carolina Medical Society and were sponsored by the State Board of Health and the State Department of Public Instruction. The medical examinations were carried out by city and county health departments, by local draft examining boards, and by the voluntary services of private physicians and dentists. The North Carolina Dental Society made a special dental survey in sixty counties of North Carolina. 15,786 boys of the junior and senior classes were examined. Of this number approximately 85 per cent needed dental attention. The survey revealed that 46,991 fillings were needed, 14,028 permanent teeth had already been lost, and that 3,196 teeth needed to be extracted. It was also revealed that over 25 per cent of all those examined had diseased gums.

The High School Victory Corps program was adopted as a good over-all statement of the aims, objectives, and activities of a high school in wartime. A coordinator was appointed to promote this program, chief emphasis being placed upon physical fitness, pre-induction education, and safety. The following table indicates pre-induction activities for the session 1943-44:

Total number students enrolled in classes—165,945.

The students were enrolled by subjects and units as follows:

1. BY SUBJECT:	<i>Enrollment</i>
Fundamentals of Electricity.....	3,480
Fundamentals of Automotive Mechanics.....	870
Fundamentals of Machines.....	3,770
Fundamentals of Radio.....	435
Fundamentals of Shopwork.....	3,045
Fundamentals of Radio Code.....	2,755
Physical Education.....	58,000
Health Education.....	33,350
Military Drill.....	725
Pre-flight Aeronautics.....	2,030
First Aid.....	3,945
Driver Education.....	11,195
Sheet Metal.....	900
Welding.....	1,100
Carpentry.....	3,485

2. BY UNITS IN SUBJECTS:

Enrollment

English (Junior or Senior).....	7,830
Social Studies, Issues of War.....	11,020
Simple Mathematics.....	8,555
Clerical Procedures.....	1,305
Mechanical Drawing.....	900

3. ADDITIONAL SUBJECTS AND UNITS..... 7,250

TOTAL.....165,945

III. HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

The enrollment in high school has been affected by two factors—the transition from an eleven- to a twelve-year program and the entrance of boys, mainly seniors, and some girls, into military service.

The following table gives data for all high schools in 1942-43.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS—WHITE AND NEGRO—1942-43

	WHITE			NEGRO			TOTAL		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Number of Schools.....			749			233			982
Number of Teachers.....	1,805	3,265	5,070	549	773	1,322	2,354	4,038	6,392
Enrollment.....	51,507	63,411	114,918	10,368	19,365	29,733	61,875	82,776	144,651
Average Daily Attendance.....	43,134	55,875	99,009	8,696	16,968	25,664	51,839	72,843	124,673
Per Cent in Attendance.....	83.74	88.11	85.98	83.87	87.62	86.31	83.77	88.00	86.19
Enrollment:									
First Year.....	4,879	5,076	9,755	1,906	2,969	4,875	6,585	8,045	14,630
Second Year.....	18,591	21,597	40,188	4,028	7,013	11,041	22,619	28,610	51,229
Third Year.....	15,073	18,824	33,897	2,750	5,583	8,333	17,823	24,407	42,230
Fourth Year.....	12,501	16,993	29,494	1,684	3,797	5,481	14,185	20,790	34,975
Fifth Year.....	663	921	1,584		3	3	663	924	1,587
Graduates.....	10,446	15,243	25,689	1,626	3,631	5,157	11,972	18,874	30,846

† The decline in the number of teachers (1,209) and pupils (51,431) over the previous year is due almost entirely to the extension of elementary school instruction to include the eighth grade. Estimated net loss of high school pupils due to the war emergency is in excess of 2,000 pupils. The decline in number of graduates from 1942 to 1943 is 1,127.

‡ The decline in number of Negro teachers (222) and pupils (3,475) is due almost entirely to the transfer of the eighth grade to the elementary school. There was an increase in number of graduates in the Negro Schools from 1942 to 1943 of 440.

The following table gives data for white high schools only in 1943-44.

WHITE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
1943-44

	RURAL			CITY			TOTAL		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Number of Schools.....			653			95			748
Accredited.....			632			95			727
Number of Teachers.....	1,211	2,285	3,496	317	1,139	1,456	1,528	3,424	4,952
Enrollment.....	31,026	41,402	72,428	15,594	19,153	34,747	46,620	60,555	107,175
Enrollment:									
First Year.....	12,700	15,274	27,974	5,677	6,483	12,160	18,377	21,757	40,134
Second Year.....	1,884	2,410	4,294	2,462	2,887	5,349	4,346	5,297	9,643
Third Year.....	9,229	12,457	21,686	4,121	5,130	9,251	13,350	17,587	30,937
Fourth Year.....	7,056	11,026	18,082	3,146	4,531	7,677	10,202	15,557	25,759
Fifth Year.....	157	235	392	188	122	310	345	357	702
Graduates.....	5,665	9,981	15,646	2,662	4,335	6,997	8,327	14,316	22,643

The enrollment of 114,918 white students in 1942-43 and 107,175 in 1943-44 means a loss of 7,743 students due largely to entering military service or to employment in essential industries.

The number of white graduates in 1942-43 was 25,689 and in 1943-44 was 22,643, a decrease of 3,046, or nearly 12 per cent. The loss in Negro schools is proportionate.

IV. TRANSPORTATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

North Carolina owns and operates its school buses. There are 4,900 buses used to transport 347,000 children daily. The cost of operation of this immense fleet is \$2,492,000 per year. Student drivers are used for the most part, both boys and girls. They are paid \$13.50 per month for nine months. Loss of the older boys to military service has necessitated the employment of girl drivers. In spite of handicaps the buses have been maintained in good condition. Replacements have been made in some instances. The State has contracts for 350 new buses for 1944-45. This transportation system will likely be augmented after the war.

V. ACCELERATION IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

The urgent need of men for the armed services and the desire of many high school students to get into military service made it seem advisable (a) to provide for high school students who left school before graduation, and (b) to provide for admission to college for some students of superior ability.

The State Department of Public Instruction approved a plan for graduation of high school students who left to enter the armed services. The plan was as follows:

"While academic standards should be maintained, those students who have to leave school during their senior year should be given most sympathetic consideration.

"We are suggesting that high school diplomas be awarded to high school seniors, who have gone into military service, upon the following conditions:

1. That the applicant is at least seventeen (17) years of age, and in the last semester of his senior year;
2. That he has completed satisfactorily at least twelve (12) units of high school work;
3. That he is making passing grades on the courses being pursued when called into military service;
4. That he make a passing score upon a standardized test set and scored by the State Department of Public Instruction, but administered by the high school principal (To defray cost of providing the examination a charge of 25c is made);

5. That credits earned in the Army Institute or any other branch of the service be given due consideration in meeting requirements for graduation from high school when credits are officially transmitted by military authorities;
6. That no diploma will be issued prior to the close of the session in which the applicant enters military service;
7. Students who were admitted to college on the basis of the Emergency Examination for Admission to College on January 14, 1943, may be granted high school diplomas when the colleges testify to the high schools that these students pursued the required courses successfully for the second semester of the session 1942-43."

These safeguards are set up in connection with the issuance of diplomas in keeping with the notion that a high school diploma is not a gift, but a recognition of achievement. A diploma is evidence which the school furnishes that the student has pursued the required course of study and that he has completed it satisfactorily. It should be an expression of confidence in the student on the part of the school which the public can accept with assurance of the student's training and ability.

The North Carolina College Conference and the State Department of Public Instruction worked out a plan for admission to college. The plan made the following provisions:

"On account of the National Emergency, particularly the lowering of the draft age to eighteen years, the North Carolina College Conference and the State Department of Public Instruction have decided to continue the emergency program relative to the admission to college of high school students who have not graduated from high school. It has been decided that non-high-school-graduates may be admitted by the colleges of the State in the summer term or summer school or at the beginning of the regular term in September, 1943, under the following conditions:

1. Each candidate must have a minimum of twelve high school units.
2. He must be certified by the principal as being in the upper one-third of his grade scholastically.
3. He must have the principal's recommendation for college admission.
4. He must pass successfully the examination selected by the College Conference and the State Department of Public Instruction.

"In conducting this college entrance examination the following procedure should be adopted:

1. Each institution will give the examinations to prospective students desiring to enter that institution, the examination to be given preferably during the two days before the registration period.

2. The examination papers are to be graded by the college giving the tests but all such papers including a list of students admitted and registered, together with scores made on each part of the examination are to be forwarded immediately to the State Department of Public Instruction.
3. Each applicant is entitled to only one examination without further secondary school training.
4. The examination will consist of two parts:
 - (a) A standardized psychological examination.
 - (b) A standardized high school content examination.

"The passing score on each of the tests given will be indicated to college registrars or examiners by the Admissions Committee of the North Carolina College Conference."

It has been necessary also to provide for allowing credit for courses taken in the United States Armed Forces Institute in meeting requirements for high school graduation and, therefore, for meeting college entrance requirements. School administrators have been advised to give credit for courses pursued successfully in USAFI when duly described and authenticated by military authorities, allowing credit on the basis of 180 class periods of 45 to 60 minutes each or 135 to 150 clock hours as a unit of work. Due consideration should be given to all experience of an educational character which can be evaluated in terms of what schools can legitimately count as credits.

VI. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The World War has accentuated interest in the program of vocational education. Demands for young men and women with special training have increased manifold. An earnest effort has been made to give varied and superior training to a larger number of persons to enable them to make more valuable contributions to the war effort.

Training has been carried on intensively and extensively in the following fields or areas:

A. *Vocational Agriculture.* The following data indicate the situation this year:

1. Number teachers on the job for 1944-45.. 397
308 of these are white and 89 Negroes.
2. Number vacant departments October 1,
1944..... 92
3. Number agriculture teachers who entered
the armed services since the war started... 142
4. Income from home practical work for
1943-44.....\$2,254,000

5. Enrollment for 1943-44. (The enrollment for 1944-45 will be about the same)	
a. High School students	White.....14,139
	Negro..... 3,535
	<hr/>
	Total.....17,674
b. Evening Class Students	White..... 841
	Negro..... 1,249
	<hr/>
	Total..... 2,050
c. Food Production War Training Classes	57,862
d. Grand total (Enrollment in all types of classes)77,586

"Records show that 65 per cent of the boys who have had one or more years instruction stay on the farm."

B. *Home Economics.* The program in home economics was expanded to meet increased demands for production and conservation of food. Special emphasis was placed upon nutrition. In 1943-44 there were 821 departments of vocational home economics in which 29,420 students were enrolled. Of the 821 departments, 394 were vocational. The total number of home economics teachers employed was 875 white and 188 Negro, or a total of 1,063.

C. *The National Defense Training Program for Out-of-School Youths and Adults.* The out-of-school youth and adult defense training program, sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education and administered by the State Board of Vocational Education, provides training for out-of-school persons over 17 years of age. During the years 1940-1942 emphasis was given to training persons between the age of 17 and 25 years of age designed to better equip them to enter national defense industrial employment. Thousands of these out-of-school youths were trained in mechanical pre-employment training courses and went into war industries and the Armed Services.

For the past two years emphasis has been placed on the training of adult farmers who are engaged in producing food and feed most critically needed in the war effort. The local teacher of agriculture is responsible for the program in the local community in cooperation with the county superintendent, the principal, and the local advisory committees.

For the year 1943-1944 emphasis was placed on courses in

1. Operation, care, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery;
2. Production, conservation, and processing food for family use;

3. Commodity production courses (pork, beef, poultry, soybeans, vegetables, etc.)

The following number of schools having vocational agricultural departments conducted OSYA classes during the year 1943-44:

1. White schools, 285 out of a total of 329 departments, or 85.4 per cent.
2. Negro schools, 82 out of a total of 89 departments, or 92 per cent.
3. Total, 367 out of a total of 418 departments, or 86.5 per cent.

Listed below is the total number of classes in the different courses and enrollment.

	<i>Classes</i>	<i>Enrollment</i>
Mechanical courses including farm machinery repair	2,084	25,008
Commodity courses	360	3,800
Production, conservation, and processing of food for family use	1,567	29,054
Total	4,011	57,862

Some Results

As a result of the courses conducted in the operation, care, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery the following table gives some idea of the amount of farm machinery repaired and skills developed by the enrollees in these classes:

	<i>Number built</i>	<i>Number repaired</i>	<i>Number painted</i>	<i>Labor value of work done</i>
Farm machines and motors (harvesters, mowers, hay rakes, tractors, trucks, etc.)	340	6,740	1,085	\$120,780
Farm implements (wagons, trailers, plows, cultivators, harrows, etc.)	18,140	38,240	24,075	178,460
Construction and remodeling jobs (livestock feeders, brooder houses, wagon beds, etc.)	8,782	4,240	2,062	98,316
Totals	27,262	49,220	27,222	\$397,556

As a result of the courses in production, conservation, and processing of food for family use 250 school community canneries have been established

within the past two years. Twenty-nine thousand farm people have been trained in the most modern methods of conserving and processing a variety of nutritious foods for family use. Over 5,000,000 cans of food have been processed in these school community canneries.

D. Trade and Industrial Education. Trade and industrial shop courses are offered in the high schools of more than fifty of the largest centers in the State. Training in diversified occupations was provided in about 40 centers.

E. Vocational Training for War Production Workers. This program, while a definite part of the War Manpower Commission's plan to recruit war workers, is administered by the Division of Vocational Education of the United States Office of Education, through the divisions of vocational education of the State departments of education, and locally through the offices of the superintendents of schools in the various communities of the states. In North Carolina officials of forty different school systems have willingly cooperated in the administration of this program.

All of the costs of operation for the vocational training of war workers, including instructors' salaries, supplies, a part of equipment costs, current for power and lights, fuel, rent, and janitorial costs are borne by the Federal Government. Thus far in this state we have spent for instructional cost \$2,323,498.16, and for equipment \$394,267.92. At the beginning there was a problem of equipment, because our schools were poorly equipped; however, by the expenditure of some local funds and a generous allowance for this purpose by Congress, our equipment has been increased to a standard that is functionally effective. For the most part, this training was not intended for persons regularly enrolled in the public schools, but for those above the normal school age. There was not any upper age limit. There were women as well as men and a large percentage of Negroes. All of the instructors were recruited from industry and qualified by having had occupational experience in the trade he taught. Training has been offered in the following different skilled occupations:

Aircraft Woodworkers	Machine Tool Operators
Aircraft Metal Workers	Pattern Making
Aircraft Welders	Radio and Communications
Armature Winders	Sheet Metal Workers
Auto Mechanics	Ship Builders (Wood)
Blacksmithing	Ship Fitters
Blueprint Reading	Ship Welders
Garment and Textiles	Textiles
Electric Appliance Repair	Gas Refrigeration
Supervisory Training	

Within the state those trained were employed by Wright's Automatic Machinery Company, Durham; Edwards Company, Sanford; Air Bases in Charlotte, Wilmington, Elizabeth City, and Goldsboro; North Carolina Shipbuilding Company, Wilmington; Elizabeth City Shipyards, Elizabeth City; Fairchild Aircraft Corporation, Burlington; and a large number of small companies which have sub-contracts for parts. Out-of-state industries that have employed a large number of North Carolina workers are Norfolk Navy Yard, Philadelphia Navy Yard, Newport News Drydock and Shipbuilding Corporation, Glenn L. Martin Aircraft Corporation in Baltimore, and many other companies from Maine to Florida. At the present time there is an enrollment of approximately 1,200. The major part of this number are persons already employed and are receiving supplementary training designed to increase their present skills. Since July, 1940, 44,452 North Carolinians have been trained.

F. Distributive Education. Distributive education is a vocational program designed to prepare young workers for distributive occupations and to train regularly employed workers in retail and wholesale organizations to the end that our system of distributing merchandise may become more efficient. Through this program specific vocational training is given in the senior year for students entering retail merchandising as a career. Work experience with pay is provided throughout the year. During the past two years this program has of necessity been adapted to aid merchants in meeting problems arising from an overnight change in the national economy to meet war-time conditions. To meet problems arising from these changes the following types of programs have been developed:

Program A, war-time emergency training for new store workers, which is part-time pre-employment replacement training to provide trained workers to replace those who have entered military service or who have gone into defense industries;

Program B, special war-time training for experienced salespersons, to familiarize them with the war regulations and adjustments affecting the sale of merchandise and the service of stores;

Program C, war-time training program for owners and managers of distributive businesses to give an understanding of the laws, regulations, orders, and control under which retail businesses must operate during the war emergency.

G. Rehabilitation. The Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction provides or secures vocational guidance, physical restoration, artificial appliances, vocational training and placement for physically impaired individ-

within the past two years. Twenty-nine thousand farm people have been trained in the most modern methods of conserving and processing a variety of nutritious foods for family use. Over 5,000,000 cans of food have been processed in these school community canneries.

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G. Rehabilitation. The Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction provides or secures vocational guidance, physical restoration, artificial appliances, vocational training and placement for physically impaired individ-

uals nineteen years old and over who are vocationally handicapped. When a person has been given a part or all of the above services to the extent that he has a permanent job with a self-supporting wage, he is closed rehabilitated. This program has advanced from a low of eighteen cases closed rehabilitated in 1922, at an average cost of \$647.08 per person, to a total of 1,584 in 1944 at an average cost of \$129.06 per person. It is evident that it costs less to rehabilitate a person for life than it does to maintain him at public expense for twelve months.

It is felt that the individual case cost will increase during the coming year to approximately \$250 per case, due to the fact that under Public Law 113 medical treatment and hospitalization to eliminate or modify physical impairments now are being furnished before vocational training has been provided. During the past year the policy of the Division has been to offer short training courses in order to get physically impaired persons on war jobs and thus win the war as quickly as possible. Emphasis in the future will be placed on longer courses of training, such as college and trade training in order to prepare physically handicapped persons to earn a satisfactory living for life. The Division will have to readjust displaced war workers, veterans with non-service connected disabilities, as well as all other persons injured in industry or crippled by disease. At the present time the Division is actively working with 3,528 physically impaired persons.

VII. AFTER THE WAR

No person can predict with accuracy all the effects the War will have upon the schools. It is fairly certain that the "GI" methods of teaching will influence to some extent the methods of teaching mathematics and foreign languages in high school and college. It should be remembered, however, that the "GI" schools had everything needed in equipment and supplies to do a thorough job. Mathematics was taught intensively many hours a day, for several weeks in succession. The student gave his whole time to it. He had no option. His work was highly motivated. He was told that what he learned might save his life. It is difficult to think of stronger motivation for any person. In the teaching of modern foreign language the direct method was used. It was largely a matter of concentration, drill and practice for many hours a day, for many days. It produced results, but the same plan cannot be used without modification in the average high school or college. However, the plan has suggestions for all teachers of foreign language. Our practice in the past has been too wasteful of time,

energy, and effectiveness. The "GI" way has many features to commend it to favorable consideration.

When the War is over, we shall find that there are some things that abide, some things that will continue to be emphasized—health, personality, knowledge, character, and religion.

The Association of Colleges of South Carolina*

BY L. T. BAKER

Acting-President, University of South Carolina

The Association of Colleges of South Carolina was organized in Charleston Feb. 15, 1902, with the following representatives present: Presidents Harrison Randolph, of the College of Charleston; A. P. Montagu, of Furman University; George B. Cromer, of Newberry College; and Col. Asbury Coward, of The Citadel; and professors C. W. Bain, Ancient Languages, of the University of South Carolina; L. M. Harris, English, of the College of Charleston; George H. Ashley, Biology, of the College of Charleston; and A. G. Rembert, Greek, of Wofford College.

The following extracts from the constitution indicate the nature and aims of the Association:

"This Association shall be called the Association of Colleges of South Carolina. Its object shall be to encourage higher education, to cooperate with the high schools and other fitting schools of the State, with a view of securing more thorough preparation for college; to aid in increasing the number of good preparatory schools, to foster kindly relations among the educational institutions and generally to promote all other educational interests of the State.

"All members of the faculties of the colleges forming the Association may attend any meeting, and they shall have the privilege of participating in all deliberations; provided, however, that each college represented shall be entitled to but one vote."

The State Superintendent of Education and the State High School Inspector also attend the meetings of the Association and participate in its proceedings.

The constitution provided that future membership should be by application, the applicant to be recommended by the Executive Committee, and admitted on a two-thirds vote of the member colleges.

The officers of the Association from 1902 to 1914 were as follows:

Presidents: A. P. Montagu of Furman University, Charles W. Bain of the University of South Carolina, A. B. Scherer of Newberry College, J. S. Moffatt of Erskine College, P. H. Mell of Clemson College, O. O. Fletcher,

* This little sketch by Dean Baker, who has for more than forty years served as secretary of the South Carolina Association of Colleges, is the first of a series of articles dealing with these important associations and conferences, as announced in the August *QUARTERLY*. Limitations of space have prevented the presentation of seven others in this issue, but we shall publish as rapidly as space permits.—EDITOR.

professor of Psychology and Philosophy of Furman University, S. C. Mitchell, president of the University of South Carolina; and

Secretaries: A. G. Rembert of Wofford College, G. A. Wauchope of the University of South Carolina, St. James Cummings of The Citadel, who served from 1908 to 1914.

The present officers of the Association are Dr. H. N. Snyder of Wofford College, president, and Dean L. T. Baker of the University of South Carolina, secretary, who have been reelected annually since 1914.

The Association has held its annual meetings as invited guests of the several colleges. For several years past the meetings have been arranged to enable cooperation with the Registrars' Association of South Carolina, the registrars meeting on Friday and the colleges on Saturday. The secretary of the Registrars' Association reports for information and discussion such proceedings as may be of interest and profit to the two associations. Joint committees are frequently appointed for research and reports on educational problems. The date of the annual meeting is generally timed to follow that of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in order to hear reports of its proceedings by delegates and to discuss such proceedings as affect the schools and colleges of South Carolina. The programs and proceedings of the Association have consistently adhered to the objectives set forth in the article of the constitution as quoted above. The Association has never undertaken the function of standardizing schools and colleges.

In Memoriam

This list is arranged alphabetically by states and institutions within each state. Information for this section should be sent to the editor before October 1 of each year from the office of the president, registrar, or principal of member institutions. The directions sent out to all member institutions should be followed; that is, write "Form B" at the top of the page and then number and give the information as follows: (1) the name and address of the institution, (2) the name of the deceased employee, (3) degrees held and in each case the institution conferring them, (4) date of entering service of your institution, (5) position held at time of death, (6) date of death, (7) any special comment, (8) any additional information, (9) your signature as the person furnishing the information. (For the 1937 list, the first published by the QUARTERLY, see the issue of February, 1938, Volume II, pp. 24-29; for the 1938 list, see Volume III, pp. 18-25; for the 1939 list, see Volume IV, pp. 564-69; for the 1941 list, see Volume V, pp. 481-86; for the 1942 list, see Volume VI, pp. 547-52, and for the 1943 list, see Volume VIII, pp. 134-46.) It will be observed that the information is given with many abbreviations and fewer capitals than normally used. Ordinary abbreviations for degrees and institutions conferring them are used. *As between "A.M." and "M.A." or "B.S." and "S.B.", the general American practice is followed, thus: A.B., A.M., Ph.D., M.D., etc. are preferred for the older degrees, whereas for the more recently recognized degrees B.S., M.S., M.Ed., etc. are given the preference.* Where, however, it is known that an institution makes a point of emphasizing the English style "B.A." and "M.A.", it is of course our policy to follow the known practice of the institution; and so also where the institution tries to achieve consistency with older degrees by stressing "S.B." and "S.M."

ALABAMA

MARION INSTITUTE: (2) Sam Schiller; (3) AB, AM, U. Ala.; studied at U. Va. and Columbia; (4) Sept., 1941; prof. social sciences; (6) Aug. 6, 1944; (9) as.

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, LIVINGSTON: (2) Therman K. Sisk; (3) AB, U. Nashville; AM, PhD, Peabody Coll.; (4) Sept. 1, 1925; (5) prof. psych. and dean; (6) Sept. 23, 1944; (7) made a telling contribution to the spiritual life of the students; (9) fgs.

GEORGIA

EMORY UNIVERSITY: (2) Harvey Warren Cox; (3) PhB, Nebraska Wesleyan; AM, U. Neb.; AM, PhD, Harvard; LLD, U. Florida; LHD,

Boston U.; (4) 1920; (5) pres. 1920-42; chancellor, 1942-44; (6) July 27, 1944; (7) guided the development of the university for twenty-two years; within that period its resources more than quadrupled, enrollment doubled, academic recognition and prestige established; (9) gcw.

EMORY UNIVERSITY: (2) Edgar Hutchinson Johnson; (3) SB, Emory U.; AM, U. Chicago; AM, Harvard; PhD, U. Chicago; (4) 1895; (5) adj. prof. math., 1895-1900; alumni prof. hist. and pol. economy, 1900-16; alumni prof. pol. economy, 1916-42; dean, coll. liberal arts, 1915-19; dean, sch. of business adm., 1919-40; dean emeritus, 1940-44; prof. emeritus, 1942-44; (6) Sept. 11, 1944; (7) a Socratic teacher of unusual skill, wise in faculty counsels; (9) gcw.

GEORGIA SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY: (2) William Van Houten (4) Sept. 1, 1889; (5) foreman of foundry; (6) Aug. 29, 1944; (9) hh.

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA: (2) John Richard Fain; (3) BSA, U. Tenn.; ScD, U. Georgia; (4) 1907; (5) prof. agronomy; (6) March 26, 1944; (7) for many years served as chairman of the student-aid committee; was recognized throughout the state for ability to help those who came to him for advice in solving their problems; supervised establishment of rehabilitation courses for disabled soldiers following World War I; (9) be.

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA: (2) W. O. Payne; (3) AB, AM, U. Georgia; (4) 1901; (5) prof. hist.; (6) March 24, 1944; (7) outstanding in his relations with students and alumni; (9) be.

KENTUCKY

GEORGETOWN COLLEGE: (2) David Edgar Fogle; (3) AB, Georgetown Coll.; AM, Harvard; LLD, Baylor U.; (4) before 1904; (5) prof. mod. langs. and literature; (6) Sept. 24, 1944; (9) er.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) Wellington Patrick; (3) AB, AM, Geo. Washington U.; PhD, Peabody Coll.; (4) Jan. 15, 1918; (5) prof. edn.; (6) May 4, 1944; (9) hgd.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) J. M. Feltner; (3) studied at U. Ky.; (4) Nov., 1917; (5) field agent, 4-H club; (6) Oct. 8, 1944; (9) hgd.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) Edward Fisk; (3) studied New York Art Students League, Nat. Academy of Design; Paris, France, Italy; (4) Sept., 1926; (5) asst. prof. art; (6) Oct. 8, 1944; (9) hgd.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) Harrison Garman; (3) DSc, U. Ky.; (4) July 1, 1889; (5) prof. emeritus entomology; (6) Aug. 7, 1944; (7) deserves much credit for drafting and securing enactment of State Nursery

Inspection Law and first Pure Seed Law and for building effective departments to carrying it out; (9) hgd.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) Ellery L. Hall; (3) AB, AM, U. Ky.; (4) Sept., 1927; (5) asst. prof. hist.; (6) Oct. 8, 1944; (9) hgd.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY: (2) Augustus Noah May; (3) BPed, Berea Coll.; BS, Colo. State Coll.; (4) April, 1919; (5) prof. emeritus industrial edn.; (6) Sept. 20, 1944.

LOUISIANA

CENTENARY COLLEGE OF LOUISIANA: (2) Pierce Cline; (3) AB, LLD, Birmingham Southern Coll.; (4) 1921; (5) president; (6) Oct. 25, 1943; (7) under his leadership, college experienced unusual growth; (9) gb.

LOUISIANA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: (2) D. G. Armstrong; (3) BS, La. Poly. Inst.; MS, La. State U.; (4) 1929; (5) dir. extension; (6) Aug. 21, 1944; (7) retired Feb. 1, 1944; (9) cc.

LOUISIANA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: (2) Martha Elizabeth Trousdale; (3) AB, La. Poly. Inst.; (4) 1910; (5) instr. in Teacher Training School; (6) Sept. 4, 1944; (7) retired in 1939; (9) cc.

LOUISIANA STATE NORMAL COLLEGE: (2) L. J. Alleman; (3) AB, Christian Bros.' Coll.; AM, La. State U.; (4) 1919; (5) prof. edn.; (6) Feb. 21, 1944; (9) jf.

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY: (2) Francis A. Cavey; (3) AM, St. Louis. U.; STD, Woodstock Coll.; (4) 1925; (5) prof. phil.; mem. board directors of univ. and treasurer of univ.; chairman and faculty dir. dept. of Loyola U. Radio Station WWL; (6) May 21, 1944; (9) par.

TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA: (2) Henry Thannhauser; (3) AB, Cambridge U.; AM, Harvard; (4) Sept. 1, 1941; (5) instr. in art, H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial Coll., on leave of absence for military service; (6) killed in Sardinia Aug. 15, 1944; (7) a staff sergeant in the Army Air Corps, having been in the service about eighteen months; was a gunner and radio man on a bomber, based in Sardinia and had completed about twenty-five missions; (9) sbk.

TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA: (2) Robert James Usher; (3) AB, U. Wis.; (4) May 1, 1938; (5) librarian, Howard-Tilton Memorial Library; (6) Aug. 4, 1944; (7) made a valuable contribution in planning the combination of the Howard Memorial Library and the Tulane University Library, many of the difficultis involved being solved through his tactful and wise assistance; the excellence of the new building is to an important degree a tribute to his skill and his devotion; (9) sbk.

MISSISSIPPI

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI: (2) Alfred William Milden; (3) BA, U. Toronto; PhD, Johns Hopkins U.; (4) Sept. 1, 1910; (5) prof. Greek lang. and literature and dean emeritus of coll. of liberal arts; (6) Feb. 16, 1944; (7) member of the faculty for 34 years; kept alive in the University an interest in the classics; (9) abb.

NORTH CAROLINA

DUKE UNIVERSITY: (2) Henry Rudolph Dwire; (3) AB, AM, Duke; LLD, Davidson Coll.; (4) 1929; (5) vice president, also director of public relations and alumni affairs and mem. Board of Trustees; (6) July 17, 1944; (7, 8) he participated broadly in civic and community affairs, both in Winston-Salem and Durham, and also on a State-wide basis; before coming to the University as director of public relations he had established professional and business success as editor and publisher of the Winston-Salem *Sentinel*; chm. Winston-Salem School Bd., 1923-30; founder of Winston-Salem Fine Arts Foundation; sec. bd. directors N. C. State Hospital, 1929-33; dist. gov. Rotary, 1929-30; mem. State Ed'l. Bd., 1931-44; ed. *Duke Alumni Register* and *South Atlantic Quarterly*; (9) hh.

EAST CAROLINA TEACHERS COLLEGE: (2) John Boyd Christenbury; (3) AB, Davidson Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (4) Sept., 1940; (5) coach and teacher of phys. edn.; (6) July 17, 1944; (8) Coach Christenbury received a commission in the Navy in March, 1943. He was killed in the munitions explosion in Port Chicago, California, July 17, 1944; (9) llg.

GREENSBORO COLLEGE: (2) Conrad Lahser; (3) AM, Columbia U.; Royal Academy of Art, Hochschule fuer Musik, Berlin, Germany; Doc. Mus., Southern Conservatory; (4) 1906; (5) classroom t., 1914-21, dir. sch. music, and later prof. German; (6) Feb. 7, 1944; (9) llg.

MARS HILL JUNIOR COLLEGE: (2) Flora Harding Robinson; (3) BS, Guilford Coll.; AM, U.N.C.; (4) 1913; (5) hd. dept. math. until Jan., 1940; became prof. emeritus, Jan. 1, 1940; (6) May 13, 1944; (8) her loyalty and influence were outstanding; (9) hb.

MARS HILL JUNIOR COLLEGE: (2) Joseph Bascom Huff; (3) AB, Wake Forest Coll.; AM, U.N.C.; (4) 1910-22; 1930-44; (5) hd. dept. Eng.; (6) Oct. 3, 1944; (9) hb.

NORTH CAROLINA STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND ENGINEERING: (2) Howard Ernest Satterfield; (3) BS in ME, ME, Purdue U.; (4) Sept., 1908; (5) prof. mechanical eng'g.; (6) May 27, 1944; (9) nlk.

ST. MARY'S SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE: (2) Mary Helen Dodd; (3) AM, Columbia U.; (4) Sept. 1932; (5) teacher chem., physics, German; (6) June 8, 1944; (9) mc.

SALEM COLLEGE: (2) Edward Maxwell Holder; (3) AB, Guilford Coll.; AM, U.N.C.; (4) 1936; (5) asso. prof. hist.; (6) June 14, 1944, drowned while rescuing a boy in the lake at the Boy Scout camp near Winston-Salem; (7) had almost completed a history of the community and of the college; (9) bn.

SALEM COLLEGE: (2) Helen Kathleen Rankin; (3) AB, Maryville Coll.; AM, Geo. Peabody Coll.; (4) 1943; (5) asst. dean of residence; (6) April 17, 1944; (9) bn.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA (2) Kent James Brown; (3) AB, Dickinson Coll.; PhD, Princeton U.; (4) 1912; (5) prof. German; (6) May 1, 1944; (7) distinguished teacher, specialist in Ger. lit. of Romantic Period, particularly the drama; (8) for many years coach of track and vitally interested in athletic progress of the University; (9) spt.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA: (2) Frederick Henry Koch; (3) AB, Ohio Wesleyan U.; AM, Harvard U.; LittD, North Dakota Coll. and Ohio Wesleyan U.; (4) Sept., 1918; (5) Kenan prof. dramatic lit.; (6) Aug. 16, 1944; (7) founder and dir. of Carolina Playmakers, one of foremost instigators of folk drama movement in America; distinguished teacher of playwriting to Maxwell Anderson, Paul Green, Thomas Wolfe, and others; (8) "Prof" Koch was instrumental in establishing the flourishing Carolina Dramatic Assn., in establishing the "Carolina Folkplays" volumes, and many other activities of similar nature; (9) spt.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA: (2) Shipp Gillespie Sanders; (3) AB, Southwestern; AM, Princeton U.; (4) Sept., 1923; (5) prof. Latin; (6) Jan. 26, 1944; (7) distinguished teacher, adviser in General College; (9) spt.

WOMAN'S COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA: (2) Laura H. Coit; (3) diploma, State Normal and Industrial Coll.; (4) 1896; (5) instr., sec. to coll. with rank prof.; (6) Feb. 24, 1944; (9) wcj.

SOUTH CAROLINA

CONVERSE COLLEGE: (2) Joseph Alexander Tillinghast; (3) BS, AM, Litt.D, Davidson Coll.; (4) 1902; prof. of soc. and econ. sci.; (6) Feb. 25, 1944; (9) emg.

TENNESSEE

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS: (2) Aurelia Potts; (3) BS, Mich. St. Coll.; MS, Teachers Coll., Columbia U.; registered nurse, U. Mich.; studied also at Merrill-Palmer Sch. and U. Mich.; (4) 1929; (5) dir. Nursing Edn., 1930; (6) April 19, 1944; (7) developed Public Health Div. into one of largest and best known in the nation; (8) was secretary of the National Public Health Nursing Asso. at time of her death; (9) scg.

MARYVILLE COLLEGE: (2) Samuel Tyndale Wilson; (3) AB, AM, Maryville Coll.; grad. Lane Theol. Sem.; DD, LittD, Maryville Coll.; LLD, Coll. Wooster; (4) 1884; (5) prof. Eng. and Spanish, 1884-1901; pres., 1901-30; dean, 1891-1901; pres. emeritus, 1930-44; (6) July 19, 1944; (7) rwl.

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE: (2) Paul Barnett; (3) AB, Howard Coll., Ala.; PhD, U. Chicago; (4) 1937; (5) prof. statistics; (6) Jan. 9, 1944; (7) very active in research; at time of death was engaged at U. Tenn. under grant-in-aid of Gen. Edn. Bd. studying "Industrial Development and Conservation of Industry in Tenn. in the Postwar Period"; (9) fcs.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY: (2) John H. Lawrence; (4) before 1906; became member of faculty in 1919; (5) instr. shop work, Sch. Eng'g (emeritus); (6) July 30, 1944; (7) originally employed by the University as a practical machinist, he demonstrated such knowledge and ability in the field of practical mechanics that he eventually became a member of the Engineering faculty; (9) occ.

TEXAS

AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE OF TEXAS: (2) Horatio Luther Van Volkenberg; (3) DVM, N.Y. St. Veterinary Coll.; BS, N.Y. St. Coll. Agric.; Grad. Sch., Cornell U. Pathology; (4) Nov. 1, 1937; (5) prof. and head of veterinary parasitology dept.; (6) Oct. 13, 1944; (8) Parasitologist, Office of Experiment Station, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, assigned to Puerto Rico, 1926-1937; (9) fcb.

NORTH TEXAS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE: (2) H. D. McMurtray; (3) BS, Miss. A and M. Coll.; MS, Texas A. and M. Coll.; (4) June, 1926; (5) prof., hd. dept. physics; (6) April 28, 1944; (9) oy.

NORTH TEXAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE: (2) Lawrence Alexander Sharp; (3) BS, LLD, Lincoln Memorial U.; AM, PhD, George Peabody Coll. for Teachers; (4) 1925; (5) dir. demonstration school, 1925-27; dean of graduate div., 1927-44; (6) Feb. 26, 1944; (7) first dean of the Grad. Div.; (9) kh.

SAM HOUSTON STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE: (2) John Thomas Luper; (3) AB, Jacksonville Coll.; AB, Texas Christian U.; AM, U. Texas;

ThM, DTh, Southwestern Baptist Theol. Sem.; (4) Sept., 1936; (5) Asso. Prof. Bible; (6) May, 1944; (7) made a distinct contribution in the field of Biblical Scholarship; a wise instructor and helpful counselor; (9) jlc.

SAN ANGELO COLLEGE: (2) C. C. Minatra; (3) AB, Colo. S.T.C.; AM, Leland Stanford U.; (4) Sept. 1, 1928; (5) dean; (6) March 20, 1944; (8) one of the original faculty members of San Angelo College; before appointment as dean, served as instructor of education and psychology; (9) whe.

SOUTHERN METHODIST UNIVERSITY: (2) Alvin Daniel Schuessler; (3) AB, BD, Central Wesleyan Coll.; AM, Northwestern; PhD, U. Mich.; (4) 1915; (5) prof. German, hd. German dept.; (6) January 3, 1944; (7) Dr. Schuessler, as faculty adviser for campus beautification of the University, was responsible for the landscaping of the campus; (8) for a short time he was bursar for the university; (9) rck.

SOUTHWEST TEXAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE: (2) Dora Givens Netterville; (3) AB, AM, U. Texas; (4) 1923; (5) asst. prof. Eng.; (6) March 9, 1944; (9) ahn.

STEPHEN F. AUSTIN STATE COLLEGE: (2) James H. Hinds; (3) AB, U. Texas; AM, Texas A. and M.; (4) 1922; (5) prof. agric.; (6) June 4, 1944; (7) active in rural betterment programs of this region; (8) died in England, Capt. in AMG service of U. S. Army; (9) plb.

TEXAS STATE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN: (2) Jessie H. Humphries; (3) AB, Howard Payne Coll., U. Chicago; AM, Columbia U.; LittD, Howard Payne Coll.; (4) Sept. 1915; (5) asso. dean of the coll.; became asso. dean emeritus a few months prior to her death; (6) July 28, 1944; (7) as asso. dean and last remaining member of the original faculty of the coll., Miss Humphries had much to do with directing its policies and developing its standards; (9) lhh.

TEXAS STATE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN: (2) W. E. Loveless; (4) Oct., 1922; (5) asst. auditor; (6) June 29, 1944; (9) lhh.

TEXAS TECHNOLOGICAL COLLEGE: (2) James I. Kilpatrick; (3) LLB, U. Texas; (4) Sept., 1938; (5) part-time prof. business law; (6) Jan. 17, 1944; (7) reorganized courses in business law in the college; (8) formerly member Board Directors, Texas State Bar Assn.; (9) hlk.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS: (2) Robert Hamilton Cuyler; (3) AB, AM, PhD, U. Texas; (4) 1927; (5) instr. geol. 1927-35; asst. prof. 1935-39; asso. prof. 1939-44; (6) March 13, 1944; (8) entered Army Air Forces July, 1942; promoted to Capt. Oct. 18, 1943; asst. dir. of Ground Tech. Advisory Unit, Randolph Field, killed in airplane accident; mem. Am. Asso. Petroleum

Geologists 1929; Fellow Geol. Soc. of Amer. 1939; mem. Paleontological Soc. of Am.; Soc. of Economic Paleontologists and Mineralogists; South-western Geological Soc.; pres. Univ. Sci. Club; Texas Acad. of Sci.; author of various articles in his professional field; (9) mrg.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS: (2) Clyde Chew Glascock; (3) PhD, Johns Hopkins; (4) 1923; (5) asso. prof. Rom. Lang. 1923-26; prof. 1926-44; (6) May 24, 1944; (8) instr. German, Yale 1908; asst. prof. Yale, 1908-14; asst. prof. Rice Inst. 1914-23; pres. Texas Folk-Lore Soc. 1914-18; editor of texts and author of articles in professional publications; (9) mrg.

VIRGINIA

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY: (2) John Stewart Bryan; (3) AB, AM, U. Va.; LLB, Harvard U.; LittD, Washington and Lee U.; LLD, U. Richmond, Ohio U., Coll. Charleston; Dartmouth Coll., U. Penna.; Syracuse U., and Coll. William and Mary; (4) Sept., 1934; (5) pres., 1934-42; chancellor, 1942-44; (6) Oct. 16, 1944; (8) pres. and pub. Richmond Newspapers, Inc.; vice rector bd. of visitors, Coll. of William and Mary, 1926-34; rector bd. of visitors, U. Virginia, 1920-22; bd. overseers Harvard U., 1937-43; trustee U. Richmond and Episcopal High Sch., Alexandria, Va.; one of founders and v.p. Va. Museum of Fine Arts; pres. Am. Newspaper Pubs. Assn., 1926-28; v.p. Nat. Inst. Soc. Sciences; pres. Va. Hist. Soc., 1935-38; (9) jwm.

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY: (2) Andrew Edward Harvey; (3) AB, Princeton U.; PhD, Marburg U., Germany; (4) Sept., 1930; (5) asso. prof. mod. langs.; (6) July 24, 1944; (9) jwm.

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY: (2) Kremer J. Hoke; (3) AB, Mt. St. Mary's Coll.; AM, PhD, Columbia U.; DCL, Mt. St. Mary's Coll.; (4) Sept., 1920; (5) prof. Edn. since 1920; dean of the Coll. and Sch. Edn., dir. summer session, 1920-38; dean of summer session and dept. Edn. since 1938; (6) Feb. 6, 1944; (8) mem. Moseley Edn. Commission to England, 1908; chairman com. on Work Conferences, Commission on Curricular Problems and Research, Southern Assn. of Colleges and Secondary Schs., 1936-44; mem. adv. com. on teaching in school and coll., State Bd. of Edn., 1936-40; mem. adv. com. Va. State Chamber of Commerce since 1942; (9) jwm.

EMORY AND HENRY COLLEGE: (2) James Shannon Miller; (3) BS, CE, ScD, U. Virginia; LLD, Emory and Henry Coll.; (4) 1893-1919; 1922-44; (5) prof. math.; (6) March 16, 1944; (8) Dr. Miller trained many outstanding students, including Dr. Fred Allison of Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Dr. W. Milton Maiden of Washington Square Coll., N.Y.U., and

Dr. Jas. S. Miller, Jr., and Dr. Jos. Kent Roberts of the U. of Virginia; (8) Fellow Am. Math. Soc.; Va. Acad. Sci. (9) fgg.

MADISON COLLEGE: (2) George Warren Chappellear; (3) BS, MS, Va. Poly. Inst.; (4) 1918; (5) prof. biol. and hd. dept. biol.; (6) Oct. 4, 1944; (7) primarily responsible for the development of the campus; (9) spd.

RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE: (2) William Saunders Adams; (4) 1893; (5) prof. of piano, emeritus; (6) March 29, 1944; (7) largely responsible for securing funds from the Presser Foundation for the erection of Presser Hall; (8) last member of original faculty of the College; (9) thj.

SWEET BRIAR COLLEGE: (2) William Bland Dew; (4) 1906; (5) treasurer and business manager 1906-21; treasurer 1921-42; (also postmaster at Sweet Briar from 1906-30); (6) Feb. 14, 1944; (9) tg.

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, FARMVILLE, VIRGINIA: (2) Mary White Cox; (4) 1902; (5) hd. of home (similar to position as dean of women); (6) Oct., 1944; (9) mww.

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, FARMVILLE, VIRGINIA: (2) Lisabeth Purdom; (3) AM, George Peabody Coll. for Teachers; (4) 1928; (5) asst. prof. music; (6) June, 1944; (9) mww.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA: (2) Henry Grady Acker; (3) BS, The Citadel; MS, U. Virginia; (4) 1926; (5) asst. prof. Sch. Supervision and Elem. Sch. Supervisor; (6) July 19, 1944; (9) jlm.

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: (2) Emmett Russell Price; (4) 1913; (5) asso. prof. of agric'l journalism; asso. editor, agric'l extension div.; (6) July 30, 1944; (9) jab.

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE: (2) Howard Henry Zimmerley; (3) BS, U. Pa.; PhD, U. Md.; DSc, Clemson Coll.; (4) 1912; (5) dir. Va. Truck Experiment Station, Norfolk; (6) Oct. 15, 1944; (9) jab.

WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY: (2) William Gaywood Moreland; (3) LLB, Washington and Lee; LLD, Hampden-Sydney; (4) 1914; (5) dean, sch. of law; (6) March 30, 1944; (9) fpg.

Historical Sketch of Randolph-Macon College

By E. L. Fox

Vaughan Professor of History, Randolph-Macon College

There is hardly a decade in American History more interesting or more significant than that extending from 1825 to 1835. And within that decade there is hardly a year more interesting than 1830. That year, or a brief period centering in that year, marked the coming into power of the common man's president, Andrew Jackson. It marked a hitherto unprecedented expansion in the electorate. It marked the beginning of the end of the attempt of the North and South to settle amicably their differences and the rise of an aggressive abolitionism symbolized by the publication of William Lloyd Garrison's *The Liberator*, on the one hand, and the publication of Thomas R. Dew's "Pro Slavery Argument," on the other. It marked the beginning of a remarkable series of mechanical inventions, or applications of inventions, that in the field of transportation gave us the railway, and in the field of agriculture gave us the metal mouldboard plow, the horse-drawn cultivator, the seed drill, the corn planter, the horse rake, and especially the reaper. Without these mechanical improvements in the means of production and in transportation the rapid rate of expansion into our trans-Mississippi West would not have been possible. The effect of these developments, together with the rapid rise only a decade earlier of industry in New England, was to give us the power and the inclination to express a vigorous nationalism. Unfortunately, another effect was to turn loose forces that intensified our sectional differences. No wonder John C. Calhoun remarked: "We are great and rapidly, I was about to say fearfully, growing. That is our pride and our danger, our weakness and our strength."

But if this was a time of rapid physical expansion and of much more general participation by the people in their government, it was not unnaturally also a time of growing sense of need for educational institutions. "Let the people rule" was the slogan in the Jackson campaign. Well, if they were to rule, they must equip themselves for their responsibilities. The disposition to establish institutions of higher learning is clearly indicated by a well-known almanac of 1852, to which the writer has had access. There are given the names of sixty colleges and universities established between 1820 and 1840. Many of these institutions have long since passed away, but they clearly indicate an interest in higher education during this period of national awakening.

Of the institutions of higher learning listed as now accredited by the Association of American Universities, thirty were established by the close

of 1830. Of the thirty, seventeen were established between 1800 and 1830. Of the seventeen, all but six were founded under denominational auspices. An examination of this list will show that Randolph-Macon College is by date of its charter the oldest Methodist-Church-related institution of higher learning in the United States. A bit of pleasantry was injected into the centennial exercises at Randolph-Macon in 1930 when the President of Wesleyan University reminded the audience that, although the date of Randolph-Macon's charter is earlier than that of Wesleyan, the latter institution actually began instruction earlier than the former. To all of which President Robert Emory Blackwell, of Randolph-Macon, in similar vein replied that a baby's age is indicated by the date of its birth—not by the date on which it begins to talk!

As is very well known, the Methodists at the Christmas Conference in 1784 set up the Methodist Episcopal Church in America as an independent denomination. At the same time the two superintendents, Thomas Coke and Francis Asbury, discussed the advisability of founding an educational institution. Asbury apparently preferred a secondary school. The university-trained Dr. Coke preferred a college. As a result, there was set up in Maryland Cokesbury College, where instruction began in 1787. After eight years the building burned without much regret so far as Asbury was concerned, except for the loss of the library. And Wesley himself wrote Asbury in 1788:

“But in one point, my dear brother, I am a little afraid both the Doctor and you differ from me. I study to be little; you study to be great. I creep, you strut along. I found a school; you a college! Nay, and call it after your own names! O beware, do not seek to be something!”

Not many years after the turn of the century the Methodists began to feel the need of a better trained ministry. True, the first discipline had advised ministers not to let learning interfere with soul winning; but John Dempster, presiding elder of the Oneida Conference, appealed to Bishop Hedding to send to his district men of better training. He had noticed, he said, that while educated people were converted at Methodist meetings, they usually joined other churches whose ministers were better trained. It was doubtless in part this need and in part a feeling that the church should make available to young men among its constituency a college education which many of them would not receive in established institutions that led to the action of the General Conference of 1820 in recommending to the annual conferences the establishment of literary institutions. A similar recommendation was again passed by the General Conference of 1824, and this led to consideration of the matter by the Virginia Conference of 1825 which met at Oxford, North Carolina.

The three men to whom, more than to any others, individual credit should be given for the founding of the college were Hezekiah G. Leigh, Gabriel P. Disoway, and John Early. The first was a North Carolinian, a member of the Virginia Conference at the time when the Virginia Conference included the North Carolina area. The second was a New York layman resident for a number of years in the city of Petersburg. The third, the son of Baptist parents, was born in Bedford County and became a Methodist Bishop. A brief characterization of each of these men may be not inappropriate.

Hezekiah Gilbert Leigh was a native of Perquimans County, North Carolina. His ancestors, of Scotch-Irish descent, had early migrated to the James River section of Virginia and toward the end of the colonial period had gone to the North Carolina county and settled not far from Edenton. Entering the Virginia Conference "on trial" in 1818, he rose so rapidly that after only six years membership in it he was elected to the General Conference and was repeatedly thereafter elected. In an historical address delivered in 1896 by the Rev. W. H. Moore, D.D., before the Historical Society of the North Carolina Conference on "The Life and Labors of Rev. H. G. Leigh, D.D.," the speaker has the following to say of Leigh:

"With the mental and spiritual endowments he possessed, and the academic training he had received, added to by an extensive course of reading which made him familiar with the English classics, which gave him a readiness of speech in conversation, and an elegant diction in public discourse, it is not to be wondered that his broad mind would be pained at, and keenly sympathize with the masses, who were not only living in ignorance, but were indifferent to their surroundings. Still less is it to be wondered at that he should be pained to see a young man entering the ministry of the Church with every qualification for success, save that of mental culture, and doomed by its lack to an almost barren ministry. . . . The times were changing—had changed in so many places—that if Methodism held her place as a spiritual force in the world, particularly in the towns and more thickly settled rural sections, the education of the ministry, far beyond what it then was, had become a necessity. Dr. Leigh was one of the first men in the Church to see this necessity, and, with him, to see a thing was to act. . . . He first secured the raising of the standard for admission to the Conference, and then, a wider compulsory course of studies for the four years preceding ordination. . . . But . . . he knew that more thoroughness was essential than this Conference course would give. He saw that an institution of college grade was necessary. . . . With Dr. Leigh, a call to preach meant a call to get ready to preach, for those not already prepared. . . . He met with many discouragements,

... but he triumphed over them all. Such was his success the Virginia Conference at its session in 1829, determined to build a College, and appointed a committee to select a site."

As to Leigh's physical appearance Dr. J. E. Edwards has left this interesting recollection:

"I first saw Rev. H. G. Leigh at the Conference held in Norfolk, Va., February, 1836. His personal appearance impressed me favorably. He was then in the prime of his life. He was, I should say, five feet, ten inches in height, perhaps six feet. . . . His face was radiant, and of a very handsome cast and mould; his nose a striking feature; his eyes clear, calm, and full of expression; his head magnificent; his hair rich and lustrous, inclining to ringlets; his complexion ruddy and bright; his whole physique perfect; his voice unsurpassed in melody, intonation, and compass."

The historian of our college, Capt. Richard Irby, used to recall the effective and dramatic manner of his platform oratory. "I used to hear him," he says, "in the college chapel, and can never forget how his eloquence swayed the listening congregations. . . . He had a peculiarity in his utterance quite remarkable, which, when heard, signalled the coming outburst of eloquence. This was what was called or described as 'Uncle Hezzie's snort.' " It might have been called the afflatus—"the unction from on high." Those who had heard him knew full well what it meant and resigned themselves to the spell of his eloquence. Of this peculiarly effective delivery Dr. Edwards gives this example:

"Once when preaching before a large throng, the subject led him to describe the perilous condition of the sinner, unconscious of his danger. This he illustrated by describing a little child in pursuit of a butterfly. In its chase around and around, it came to the brink of a deep well; for a moment it paused; then as it was in the act of extending its little hand to grasp the insect on a flower; it toppled. Just then he sprang across the platform and cried out, in a most plaintive voice, 'My God! It is gone!' The whole congregation sprang to their feet, and many shrieked, as if they had seen the child actually disappearing in its downward fall."

Dr. Charles F. Deems, himself a widely known speaker, thus characterized Leigh:

"Dr. Leigh was great as an orator. I have heard Summerfield, Bascom, Maffitt, Breckenrige, Hawks, Bethune, Cookman, and Henry Clay and his compeers—and I have never heard a man who seemed to me to approach Hezekiah Gilbert Leigh as a *natural* orator."

The second of these founders, Gabriel Phoebus Disosway, was of Huguenot descent. Coming to this country after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, one branch of the family settled in South Carolina and the other, to which our founder belonged, on Staten Island, New York. An alumnus of Columbia, of the class of 1821, he was a very active Methodist layman, carrying on a large dry goods business in Petersburg from 1820 to 1828. He and Hezekiah G. Leigh collaborated in developing an interest which resulted in the establishment of Randolph-Macon, and Disosway and his brother were great friends and generous contributors to Wesleyan University, in Connecticut. Disosway was greatly interested in the establishment of Sunday schools, was long a trustee of the University of New York, was often elected manager of the Methodist Missionary Society, originated the Mission to the Flat Head Indians, and was a director in the American Bible Society. He believed in undertaking to solve the Negro problem of his day by appealing to slaveholders to emancipate their slaves on condition that the slaves would agree to settle in Liberia, Africa, under the auspices and at the expense of the American Colonization Society. He was a frequent contributor to daily, weekly, and quarterly secular and religious publications, and is perhaps best known as a writer by his volume, long standard, "The Old Churches of New York." Of the two men, Leigh and Disosway, it is probably impossible to say to which should go the major part of the credit for motivating the founding of the college.

The third of the founding fathers was John Early, thirteenth son of Joshua and Mary Leftwich Early, Bedford County Baptists. Joining the Methodist Church at the age of 18, he entered the ministry, and at the age of 27 was a presiding elder. His first ministry was to the slaves of Thomas Jefferson, and the welfare of members of the Negro race was one of his chief life interests. Strangely enough, although a minister he was repeatedly nominated for Congress, was offered by President Tyler the office of comptroller of the currency, and was also offered the governorship of the territories of Illinois and Arkansas. If others aroused more enthusiasm in favor of the college during its first years, he probably more than any of the others diligently labored to insure its financial support and attended to its business affairs, being among its first trustees and president of the board for some forty years.

It is not without interest to recall that Scotch-Irish and French Huguenot are crossed in the college's ancestry, that Baptist and Episcopalian as well as Methodist influence entered its early tradition, and that the founding fathers hailed from New York and Vermont as well as from North Carolina and Virginia.

Judge R. M. Blackwell, in an obituary of Rev. James Jamieson, states that "on a cold March day in 1827 James Jamieson, Hezekiah G. Leigh, and Leroy M. Lee riding on horseback on the road between Boydton and Clarks-

ville returning from an Annual Conference of the Methodist Church held in Petersburg, a little west of the village of Boydton, turned out in a piney old field of an undergrowth of small oaks interspersed with an occasional large sweet gum or sycamore through which ran Townes' race course, to partake of their mid-day lunch, and being struck with the natural beauty of the place decided between themselves that it was the ideal location to pick for the proposed Methodist College." The next year at the session of the Conference held at Raleigh a committee was appointed to report on ways and means. At a committee meeting held at Zion Church, Mecklenburg County, Virginia, a group of citizens of that county offered \$10,000 provided the proposed institution were located on the Townes race course. The committee recommended to the next session of the Conference that this location be confirmed, and the Conference took this action. The men who more than any others were responsible for the selection of the site were Hezekiah G. Leigh, William O. Goode, William Townes, Nathaniel Alexander, Beverly Sydnor, and Howel Taylor. Goode was a member of the State legislature and drafted a bill to establish "Henry and Macon College."

To understand the difficulties encountered in the General Assembly by the Methodists and their friends it is necessary to recall that only four years before the introduction of the bill Thomas Jefferson had died. His influence was still strong, and he had entertained very definite views on the relation between church and state, which may be summarized as follows. The purpose of government was not to promote either a class or a church. It was rather to protect the individual in the enjoyment of his natural rights. Whatever enlightenment of the mind would contribute to man's awareness of his rights or his ability to safeguard them it was the obligation of the state to make universally available. But, as he conceived it, it was no part of the state's rightful concern to promote in any way any form of religious faith. So careful must the state be to avoid the promotion of religious sectarianism that it must not lend its assistance in any way to the fostering of theological seminaries. So far as he was able he modified the curriculum of the College of William and Mary to conform to this conviction, and in his plans for the University of Virginia he proceeded upon the same educational philosophy. As one of his modern interpreters has summarized his views, "if the legitimate powers of the government did not concern themselves with religious opinion, the corollary followed that the government could not concern itself with education, so long as education was concerned with religious opinion."

Not a few members of the General Assembly of Virginia were in accord with these views, and as a result there was a legislative debate on the granting of the charter. En route through the legislative stages the name of the institution was changed to Randolph-Macon College and there was added to the charter a proviso that "nothing herein contained shall be so

construed as at any time to authorize the establishment of a theological professorship in the college." That this limitation ran sharply counter to the views of the Reverend Stephen Olin, first president of the college, and a native of New England where the views of Jefferson were anathema to many of the cultured, is evidenced by the fact that in his inaugural address he said "that this generation has not given birth to another absurdity so monstrous as that which would exclude from our seminaries of learning, the open and vigorous inculcation of religious faith, which is acknowledged by our whole population, and which pervades every one of our free institutions." Whatever the legislative prohibition against teaching theology, the college from the first included religious observances in its daily program. It is true, however, that the largest individual financial contributor was not a Methodist, and neither of the men for whom the institution was named was a Methodist. Furthermore, an old catalogue contained the assurance: "No test of any religious character shall be required of any young man who wishes to join this institution or while he continues a member of it."

Boydton, Mecklenburg County, was the seat of the college from its establishment until its removal to Ashland in 1868. The reason for the original location was that the college was intended to serve Methodists of both Virginia and the Southeastern States, and Boydton was near the area of greatest Methodist strength in 1830. It was named for John Randolph of Roanoke, a representative in congress from the Virginia district in which Boydton is located, and Nathaniel Macon, a representative from the North Carolina district just across the line and within fifteen miles of Boydton. Apparently neither of these widely known public men ever expressed any deep interest in the welfare of the college. Indeed, the Randolph-Macon tradition, which sounds peculiarly Randolph-esque, is that when he was approached for permission to allow the use of his name John Randolph replied that he certainly had no objection because as soon as the college educated a man he would cease to be a Methodist.

Among the reminiscences of those early days one is of special interest and is here quoted in part:

"... In those days schedules were strenuous, and the day's work had to be begun with proper devotions. The dim light of the study scarcely penetrated the dark corners, and the professor in charge would gravely remark, 'We will dispense with the reading for obvious reasons.' If 'Old Santy,' the president, was leading, he would announce to the tittering benches, while he felt his pockets in vain, 'We will omit reading, as I have left my specs at home.' Somehow the boys did not have the heart to tell him that they were on his forehead in full view. But what they lacked in reading, they gained in praying. . . .

"... Even the prayers had to have an end, and then the recitations dragged along wearily until the slow bell brought breakfast. After-

wards there were lectures and more recitations until the bell rang for evening prayer at five o'clock. . . . Even the Seniors had no very easy time, and in 1839, there was a 'strike' against taking a course in 'Evidences of Christianity' on Monday morning before breakfast."

During these early years the college faced financial difficulties that have been common to denominational institutions. Although the president's salary in the early days was only one thousand dollars, and that of the professors was eight hundred dollars each, plus a home and garden, income from the students was relatively small. The tuition for the ten months session was \$30.00, meals were provided at \$5.00 a month, rooms and washing for the session added \$20.00, wood \$3.00, lights \$3.00, and the total of all costs for the ten months session was \$115.00. The depression following the panic of 1837 greatly reduced the contributions of friends of the institution, and between 1841 and 1843 there appeared to be little hope that it would be able to survive. The unpaid debts on building account, long delays in paying salaries of members of the faculty, and the diminishing support from Methodist Conferences as colleges were organized within their territory added up to a problem that might have been unsolved had not a member of the board of trustees advanced the necessary funds to tide the college over. In 1858 a financial campaign brought the endowment fund to about \$100,000.00—one of the largest of that time in the South. This would doubtless have enabled the college to render notable service in the cause of education but for the fact that it was largely invested in Confederate bonds which became worthless. The college found itself in poverty again.

These difficulties, together with the fact that Conferences south of Virginia now had an institution of their own to support, forced a decision on the question whether it might be well for the institution to move nearer the bounds of the Baltimore Conference which, at this time seemed disposed to assist in the financial support of the college if a satisfactory site could be found. Accordingly the Virginia Conference recommended in 1863 its removal to "some more eligible locality." One of the localities that considered itself eligible was Ashland, in Hanover County—the birthplace of Patrick Henry, Henry Clay, and Thomas Nelson Page—located on the main east coast railroad connecting the North and the South. It so happened that a hotel and grounds were for sale and might be used pending the construction of college buildings. In 1868 the college was moved to Ashland. It is not without interest that the college was established first on a race course at Boydton and then at a summer resort in Ashland.

Randolph-Macon has had eleven presidents. The first was Stephen Olin who served until 1839. Olin was the son of Henry and Lois Olin, of Leicester, Vermont, the father a lawyer and prominent political figure of that state. Valedictorian of his class at Middlebury College in 1820,

Stephen Olin was a young man of great promise but was throughout life seriously handicapped by physical frailty. In search of a more suitable climate he went to South Carolina where he taught for a while and then entered the South Carolina Conference. Within the next few years he found the ministry of that day too strenuous, and he was employed to teach in Franklin College. Elected to the presidency of Randolph-Macon College he brought his Georgia-born wife to Boydton and served until his health again broke down. He spent three years traveling in Europe and the Holy Land. Returning to the United States he was made, in 1842, president of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut. By his official visits to the conferences and his articles in Methodist journals he interpreted to Methodists the importance of their support of education, and it is said that he was one of the relatively few Methodists who prior to 1850 championed the cause of theological education. While in the South Olin had owned slaves, although he was a Vermonter. At the General Conference of 1844, where the question of the division of the Church was the burning question, he labored assiduously to find a basis of agreement, and one of the historians of Methodism says that "the only speech delivered in the General Conference of 1844 which exhibited a full comprehension and just estimate of all sides of the subject was that of Stephen Olin, who was as familiar with the North as with the South." After the General Conference adjourned he continued to work for the promotion of fraternal relations. In addition, he labored in the interest of a closer friendship among the Protestant denominations. He was the author of a two-volume work on "Travels in Egypt, Arabia, Petraea, and the Holy Land"; also "Youthful Piety"; "Greece and the Golden Horn"; "College Life: its Theory and Practice."

The second president was Landon C. Garland. He, son of a socially prominent and civically useful family of Nelson County, was sent to Hampden-Sidney College because of the fear his parents had of the "free thought" they had associated with the University of Virginia. Intending to enter the law he accepted the professorship of natural science at Washington and Lee, temporarily as he thought. Coming to Randolph-Macon he was professor of natural philosophy from 1832 to 1836, and was then elected president, remaining until 1846. While he administered the college, he wrote a textbook on trigonometry, but losing his health was forced to resign. Refusing invitations to the presidency of other institutions, including the College of William and Mary, he went to teach at the University of Alabama, became its president in 1855, and continued until 1865. Thereafter, at the invitation of Bishop McTyeire, himself an old Randolph-Macon man, he wrote and spoke in favor of a more thoroughly educated ministry, and as a means to that end, the establishment of one central theological seminary for the entire Methodist Church, South. The outcome, after a warm debate as to the wisdom of this course, was the establishment of Vanderbilt

University. Garland became its first chancellor. Mathematics was his special field, but he at one time or another taught also physics, astronomy, philosophy, and literature. He was also well-read in the fields of Greek, Latin, music, and theology. The author of the biographical article in the Dictionary of American Biography says of him: "He was unassuming, meticulous, and devout; gracious, if slightly ceremonial, in manner; and forceful, if slightly plain, in public speech. He was an eager sportsman, a hunter and fisher who seldom missed his game even when he was around eighty; yet, . . . 'He loved all animal life, and was the avowed friend of every good dog, and felt a deep interest in birds.' During a cold spell he was careful every day to feed the sparrows about his house. 'St. Francis of Assisi' could not have been tenderer."

The third Randolph-Macon president, William Andrew Smith, a native of Fredericksburg, was left motherless at two and fatherless at eleven. Befriended by a merchant of Petersburg and given a limited education, Smith became a member of the Virginia Conference in full connection in 1827. Dr. Blackwell has said of him: "He was one of the great preachers of his day" and was a delegate to every Methodist General Conference from 1832 to 1844. He was also a member of the Louisville convention which organized the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and was a delegate to its general conferences until his death. A member of the Randolph-Macon board of trustees from its beginning in 1830, he was very active in its affairs even before his election to the presidency in 1846. Under his administration the student body grew and also the endowment, which at one time amounted to \$100,000. His views on slavery had some influence in the South and a series of lectures delivered to the students was published under the title: "Lectures on the Philosophy and Practice of Slavery as Exhibited in the Institution of Domestic Slavery in the United States, With the Duties of Masters to Slaves." The volume was a defense of slavery, and it has passed along as a part of the Randolph-Macon tradition that his lectures were so extreme that the students, thinking that there must be something to be said for the other point of view, were moved to oppose slavery! Leaving Randolph-Macon in 1866 he went to a St. Louis pastorate and shortly thereafter was made president of Central College, Fayette, Missouri. He is buried in Hollywood cemetery, Richmond.

The fourth president, Colonel Thomas C. Johnson, served only two years, 1866-1868, the troubled years of reconstruction, poverty, and uncertainty as to Randolph-Macon's future. The fifth was Dr. James A. Duncan, of whose administration something will be said later on. The sixth, William W. Bennett, served from 1877 to 1886. The seventh, William Waugh Smith, was the president who felt that there was needed a coordinate institution for women, and preparatory institutions for both boys and girls. He may therefore be called the founder of Randolph-Macon Woman's College,

the two Randolph-Macon Academies, and Randolph-Macon Institute—all under the operation of the same Board of Trustees, but all located in different parts of the State. The eighth, John A. Kern, later went to Vanderbilt. The ninth, W. G. Star, served only three years. The tenth, R. E. Blackwell, served from 1902 to 1938. The eleventh, J. E. Moreland, is the present incumbent.

A particularly interesting period of the college's history is that embraced in the presidency of James A. Duncan (1868-1877) immediately after the removal from Boydton to Ashland. Duncan gathered about him a group of teachers of really distinguished talents, and these influenced their students to go on to graduate work, many of them going to German universities. In an appreciation of one of our alumni, William Malone Baskervill, appearing in the *Sewanee Review*, in 1900, the writer characterizes Randolph-Macon at this period as follows: "Dr. Duncan had a small faculty, but one so carefully chosen, that for a period of eight years at least (1868-1876), Ashland became one of the inspiring intellectual centers of the Southern states." Among those teachers of the Duncan period were J. L. Buchanan, professor of Latin, who later held the same chair at Vanderbilt, was president of Emory and Henry College and of Virginia A. and M., was Superintendent of Public Instruction of Virginia, and was President of the University of Arkansas. There was also N. T. Lupton, professor of chemistry, who became successively professor of chemistry at Vanderbilt, state chemist of Alabama, president of the University of Alabama, chairman of the chemistry section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and Vice President of the American Chemical Society. There was G. F. Pierce, professor of languages, who became successively president of the Georgia Female College, Wesleyan Female College, Emory College, and bishop in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South. There was J. A. Harrison, professor of languages, who went from Randolph-Macon to Washington and Lee and then to the University of Virginia, and who lectured on Anglo-Saxon poetry at the Johns Hopkins University, was one of the editors of the *Century Dictionary* and of the *Standard Dictionary*, and author or joint author of some fifteen works. There was Thomas R. Price, who while professor of English at Randolph-Macon just after the Civil War so inspired his students that several went on to German universities and then returned to teaching positions, particularly in the South. Among these were Robert Sharp, who taught and later became president at Tulane; W. M. Baskervill, who went to Wofford and then to Vanderbilt; W. A. Frantz, who went to Central College, Missouri; J. F. Ficklin, who went to Tulane. Others among Price's students who later taught were Howard Edwards—later president of Rhode Island State College—at the University of Kansas, J. D. Epes at St. Johns, John Leslie Hall at William and Mary, and J. L. Armstrong at Randolph-Macon Woman's College. Price, who

went from Randolph-Macon to the University of Virginia and then to Columbia, exerted an influence also over the young Walter Hines Page and may have had something to do with his warm sympathy for the English.

Among Price's students was Robert Emory Blackwell, who came just as the college was beginning operations in Ashland. On the completion of his college course Blackwell went to Leipzig and was then called back to succeed Price, who was called to the University of Virginia. From that time to his death in 1938 Blackwell gave himself with singular devotion to the interests of the College. Although he was president for the last thirty-six years of his life, he continued to teach at least one English class, and after the turn of the century his was the life that shaped the spirit of the institution. His catholicity of spirit, his inquiring mind, his complete absence of cant, his personal charm and courtliness, his confidence in both his staff and his students, and his insistence—sometimes at great cost—upon leaving the way open to the inquiring mind marked him as a liberal in the finest meaning of that word; and those qualities gave tone and spirit to the institution with which he so completely identified himself and his fortunes. During his administration the student body and faculty doubled in size, the resources of the College were greatly increased, and two dormitories, a library, and a gymnasium were built. He was active also as a participant in the standardizing of colleges and secondary schools of Virginia and the South, was a member of the Methodist Unification Commission, and for many years was chairman of the Virginia Commission on Interracial Cooperation.

Space does not permit the telling of the story of changes in the curriculum, nor of the great influence of the literary societies as agencies of student government, or as substitutes for modern fraternity life, or as purchasers and sponsors of the first college library. The point should be emphasized, however, that Randolph-Macon College did not begin its existence as an academy, as did so many institutions of the early years. It was a college from the first, and its earliest courses apparently provided an abundance of intellectual meat. The first catalogue specifies that the sessions continue ten months, and that "in granting degrees, no regard is had to the time during which a student has been connected with the institution. A thorough and extensive education is the only test." To satisfy the requirements for the degree of "Bachelor of the Liberal Arts and Sciences" a student must have satisfactorily completed the work prescribed in four departments—the classical department, the mathematical department, the department of natural science, and the ethical department. The work prescribed in the classical department included Cicero, Virgil, Tacitus, Horace, Xenophon's *Anabasis*, Homer's *Iliad*, Demosthenes, Sophocles, Euripides. That in mathematics included algebra, geometry, trigonometry (both plane and spherical), mensuration, surveying, navigation, projection and dialling, conic sections,

differential and integral calculus. The natural science department included and required mechanics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, optics, astronomy, and physical geography, electricity (mechanical and voltaic), magnetism, and electro-magnetism. The ethical department required mental philosophy, moral philosophy, rhetoric, criticism, and universal grammar.

Throughout its long history the College has sought to maintain the highest scholastic standards. It is one of the six Virginia institutions having Phi Beta Kappa chapters. Judged by the number of its students who have been listed in *Who's Who* Randolph-Macon stands high among the leading colleges of this country. The best available record of living graduates through 1929 is 736. Of this number, 8.02 per cent appear in *Who's Who* in 1935. The college was one of the first to become a member of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is one of the institutions whose degrees are accredited by the Association of American Universities. It was one of the five Virginia institutions participating in the organization of the Southern University Association.

The celebration in 1930 of the College's centennial called forth a number of interesting evaluations. At that time the late President Edwin A. Alderman, of the University of Virginia, wrote: "I know of no American college that has builded for itself a more genuine spirit, personality, and character than Randolph-Macon College, and thus has, in beautiful and vigorous maturity, become a spot toward which a self-controlled and self-governed democracy must forever turn for new health and strength." The late Dean James Morris Page, of the University of Virginia and himself a Randolph-Macon alumnus, said on that occasion: "I am here simply to remind you of the principal secret of the magnificent work that Randolph-Macon has done—that secret being that this work was conceived and executed in truth and honesty."

Since the institution is a church-related college, though certainly in no narrow, sectarian sense, the church has naturally been interested in inquiring what special contribution Randolph-Macon has made to the effectiveness with which her ministers there trained have been able to do their work and the extent to which the church may look to the college for leadership. The writer had occasion to make in 1933 a study pertinent to these matters, as they relate to the Virginia Conference. At that time, of the 383 ministers in that Conference, 203, or 53 per cent, were Randolph-Macon men. Of the ministers who had served as presiding elders, within the period of 1901-1933—no name being counted twice—68 per cent were Randolph-Macon men. Of the ministers who, within the years 1901-1933, inclusive, added to their church membership not fewer than 100 members during a single year, 68 per cent were Randolph-Macon men.

It will be appropriate to conclude this historical sketch by quoting from the address made at the centennial by the then Governor of Virginia, John

Garland Pollard: "It is fitting that I, as Chief Executive of this Commonwealth, should on this occasion give expression to the great debt of gratitude which Virginia owes to this ancient college. Without being a charge on the public treasury Randolph-Macon has contributed more than her share to Virginia's greatness. I therefore take very great pleasure in publicly acknowledging on this centennial occasion Virginia's appreciation of what this college has done for her."

When, at the close of the French Revolution, one of the participants in those stirring times was asked what he had done, he replied simply: "I lived". To him it was something that he had merely survived the onrush of events. Similarly, if one inquires what, during the past one hundred and twelve years, Randolph-Macon has done, the answer can be given: "It has lived." And it can be added that of all the colleges affiliated with the now re-united Methodist Church in America Randolph-Macon is the only one that has lived that long. Scores of sister colleges have been established and disappeared. It is something to have ridden the waves, to have faced the issues, to have made the adjustments necessary to survive in a time like the last century in a country like America. It is something for a church-related college to have lived through a generation that participated in a great debate over the institution of slavery; to have shared the destitution that followed the War Between the States; to have seen the victory of industry over agriculture, and then the bewildering problems faced by agriculture itself; to have seen the physical frontier advance from Missouri to California, the transportation frontier advance from the canal to the airplane, the political frontier advance from rugged individualism to the Social Security Act, the intellectual frontier advance from Newton to Darwin, the theological frontier advance from an age of signs and wonders to an age of the reign of law. It was something indeed to have lived through a century of such change.

The University of the South, Sewanee, Tennessee

BY ALEXANDER GUERRY

Vice-Chancellor, The University of the South

The University of the South is a Christian institution, with a clearly-discerned philosophy of Christian education, owned by twenty-two dioceses of the Protestant Episcopal Church. It has no religious restrictions but presumes the disposition of all members of its community to live within the creative provisions of its controlling concepts. Young men of all denominations are enrolled in the student-body.

The idea of The University of the South was born in a manifesto signed and published by nine Southern bishops attending the National Convention of the Episcopal Church in Philadelphia in 1856. The leader in the movement was Bishop Leonidas Polk of Louisiana. This declaration was an invitation and an appeal to the Church in the South to take steps to found an institution of higher learning, because, in the thought of the bishops' letter, "the establishing of a Christian University by our Church is a compelling necessity, for intelligence and moral sentiment are the support of government."

In response to the call of the Philadelphia message, the bishops and the duly elected clergy and laymen of their several dioceses assembled on Look-out Mountain in Tennessee on July 4, 1857, the date of the foundation of The University of the South as recorded in its history. This assembly, which was actually a meeting of trustees, determined by formal resolution to establish a university. The trustees launched plans for the great undertaking, appointed committees to carry on the preliminary work, and adjourned to gather again in the fall.

According to agreement, the trustees met in Montgomery, Alabama, on November 25, 1857. Here they named the institution which they were to build "The University of the South," and selected Sewanee, Tennessee, on a plateau in the Cumberland Mountains, as the site and home of the proposed University. And since that time The University of the South has been popularly known as "Sewanee."

At historic Beersheba Springs, thirty miles north of Sewanee, the Trustees assembled for the third time on July 3, 1858. The charter of the University, granted by the Legislature of Tennessee on January 6 of the same year, was presented to the Board of Trustees. Further plans were made to open the University as soon as possible.

The cornerstone of The University of the South was laid on October 10, 1860. A great concourse of people, five thousand in all, gathered in the forest on the Mountain top for the impressive and significant ceremony.

The whole scene was the romantic reality of a magnificent vision come true. Bishop Elliott of Georgia placed first in the cornerstone a copy of the Bible and then a copy of the Book of Common Prayer.

Bishop Leonidas Polk of Louisiana formally laid the stone, speaking these words, "I, Leonidas Polk, D.D., Bishop of Louisiana, on this tenth day of October, in the year of grace one thousand eight hundred and sixty, do lay this cornerstone of an edifice to be here erected as the principal building of The University of the South, an institution established for the cultivation of true religion, learning and virtue, that thereby God may be glorified and the happiness of man may be advanced." The Honorable John S. Preston of South Carolina delivered the oration. Among the many fine statements in his splendid address this sentence challenges the attention of men today as it did at that time—"Unless we are taught to use them in the right way, civil and religious liberties are worthless and dangerous boons."

Then came the Civil War. The conflict which raged for four years put an end temporarily to all plans to build the University. And after the War came reconstruction. It appeared that the concept of a great Christian University might be lost in the struggle of contending armies and in the chaos and uncertainty that followed upon the heels of battle.

But the dream lived on in the hearts and minds of men. After the strife was over and as the South began its valiant effort to rebuild itself, men's thoughts turned again to the undertaking which had fired their imagination. With heroism and renewed confidence, the Church, under the leadership of Bishop Quintard of Tennessee, picked up the threads that had been broken by the clash of arms and knit them together again.

And in 1868 on September 18 The University of the South was opened, with an enrollment of nine students for its first session. There was only one frame building and a wooden cross. But that was enough. Courage had triumphed. The University envisioned by the bishops in Philadelphia had been established. Since that time seventy-four years have passed, years of toil and sacrifice on the part of a host of men and women loyal and devoted to Sewanee and her mission, years of victory and defeat, of hope and disappointment, years of an abiding and steadfast faith not to be denied. The handful of students has grown. Buildings have been erected one by one. The University of the South is now composed of a College of Liberal Arts with about three hundred twenty students, and a Theological School of forty students. Apart from and near to the University campus and under the same Board of Trustees is the Sewanee Military Academy, an excellent preparatory school of two hundred boys.

The first frame building and others like it of the early periods have gone. Beautiful stone buildings of artistic design have taken their place, twenty-seven in all, and all constructed of stone from the mountain on which they rest.

The campus of the University is one of the loveliest in America, with its winding walks, green grass, and majestic oaks. Close by is the mountain's edge with enchanting views of the valley below.

Here conditions are almost ideal for the pursuit of learning, for growth of mind and spirit, for enrichment of personality, for development and nobility of character.

Just as the establishing of a great Christian University in 1856 was a compelling necessity, the strength and permanence of The University of the South for the present and the future are also a compelling necessity. In this day, as in that of the inception of Sewanee, intelligence and moral sentiment are the support of government and society. Among a society of free people there must be intelligence, the disciplined mind endowed with wisdom and understanding, in order that the people may rule themselves wisely and justly. Among such a society there must be moral sentiment, a moral tone, the reality of spiritual ideals in order that the people may possess that righteousness which exalteth a nation.

Both intelligence and morality are necessary because the mind without the control and motivation of spiritual ideals is a negative or a destructive agency, and because spiritual idealism without intelligence is weak and futile.

The aim and purpose of the University are clearly set forth in the following statement formulated by the University Senate:

"We are definitely committed at Sewanee to the College of Liberal Arts as a distinct unit in the educational system of our country, with a contribution to make that can be made by no other agency. In an age when the demand for the immediately practical is so insistent, when the integrity of the College of Liberal Arts is imperilled by the demands of vocational training, we adhere to the pure cultural function of the College of Liberal Arts: the training of youth in Christian virtue, in personal initiative, in self-mastery, in social consciousness, in aesthetic appreciation, in intellectual integrity and scientific methods of inquiry.

"This function can best be performed in a small college through the medium of a faculty of character and distinction maintaining intimate personal contact with a carefully selected group of students.

"As a further means, the curriculum of the College of Liberal Arts should not only be of a definite character but seek consistently and positively the correlation of the various branches of knowledge by referring them to a fundamental principle in the light of which can be seen Mathematics and Physics reaching up through Philosophy to the knowledge of God; Biology, Chemistry and Geology as a progressive revelation of the creative force in the universe; and Economics, Sociology, and Political Science looking forward to the realization of the

Christian ideal of human society founded on the Brotherhood of Man and the Fatherhood of God.

"The well-rounded curriculum recognizes the importance of Ancient Languages and Literature and conserves thereby the best that there is in the past of the race; it gives a position of emphasis to the study of the English Language and Literature, together with a training in oratory and debate, as necessary to a proper appreciation of our Anglo-Saxon traditions; it gives due recognition to Pure Science, the Social Sciences, and History as indispensable instruments for maintaining an intelligent contact with contemporary life and civilization; it includes Modern Languages and Literature as the surest means to a true understanding of the manners and institutions of those nations who share with us the burdens of human progress; it looks to the study of Philosophy as the agency which synthesizes and unifies all departments of human endeavor. The educational program of the College of Liberal Arts requires the recognition of the sanctity of the human body and the necessity for its development in wholesome and well-regulated athletics.

"Furthermore, inasmuch as religious faith is the essential basis of right conduct and as that faith is best cultivated through the aid of Divine Revelation, The University of the South regards as indispensable to the realization of its ideals of cultured and useful manhood, systematic courses of instruction in the Bible. Finally, as there is no true progress without a goal, The University of the South states this to be the end and objective of its effort in any and all of its departments: the realization of the Kingdom of God, which is the kingdom of love, as interpreted in the life and teaching of Jesus Christ."

Vanderbilt University

BY EDWIN MIMS

Emeritus Professor of English

March 17, 1873, there appeared in the New York papers and in the Associated Press the brief announcement: "Dr. Charles F. Deems is authorized to announce that Commodore Vanderbilt has given Bishop McTyeire of the Southern Methodist Church 500,000 dollars to establish a university in Tennessee." The observant reader, who saw the simple announcement without any context or explanation, must have asked certain questions: What has happened to Commodore, heretofore known as a master financial wizard with a contempt for "ministers and beggars" and with little or no formal education, that he should have given so large a sum to establish an institution of higher learning in a remote section of the country? Why should the pastor of a church in New York—the Church of the Strangers—who had spent most of his life in Virginia and North Carolina, have been entrusted with so important an announcement regarding the State of Tennessee? Who was Bishop McTyeire, anyhow? Why should he be interested in securing money for a university instead of for the more immediate needs of a church struggling for its very existence? And why, at a time when Reconstruction in the South was at its worst stage and politicians were doing their utmost to keep the flames of sectional prejudice and passion burning, should a state or region be treated so generously?

The answers to these questions suggest the origins of Vanderbilt University. The money was not given to establish "a university" but to make real the dream of "Central University," which had been projected by the convention held in Memphis, January 24-27, 1872, of delegates from seven conferences of the Southern Methodist Church, and it was to the Board of Trust set up by this Convention that the Commodore made his gift. The Convention, after much deliberation and many doubts, issued a challenge to the Church in the form of a resolution "that measures be adopted looking to the establishment as speedily as practicable of an institution of learning of the highest order, and upon the surest basis, where the youth of the church and country may prosecute theological, literary, scientific, and professional studies to an extent as great and in a manner as thorough as their wants demand," and that "the sum of one million dollars is necessary in order to realize fully the object desired, and not less than 500,000 dollars must be secured as a condition precedent to the opening of any department of the university.

Never was there a better illustration of adventurous faith than such a

declaration at such a time of poverty and suffering. As events were quick to show, Central University was a mere castle in the air until the Commodore transformed it into a substantial structure. When the Board of Trust of the university-on-paper met January 17, 1873, only a third of the members were present, not even the President; the agents who had been appointed to collect funds had not raised enough money to pay their expenses; the heads of struggling institutions of the church had set up counter claims for support; many of the leaders, including some of the Bishops, were opposed to theological training, which had been declared as one of the main objectives of the new university; the post-war poverty of the region was intensified by the panic that was gathering headway in that very year; there was an epidemic of yellow fever; the Publishing House, which had priority over all other financial demands of the church, had been burned and was not yet restored—in short, conditions were so desperate that even the stoutest defenders of the new cause seemed justified in regarding the whole plan as “a failure,” “an impossibility.” If the institution could be started at all, it would be like so many other church colleges throughout the South, with little or no endowment, no equipment, and with a lone building, costing from ten to thirty thousand dollars, for all instructional purposes, and an inevitable debt.

Such was the situation when Bishop McTyeire, who had taken the lead in the projection of the university and who a year later saw that the whole movement was doomed to failure, went to New York for medical treatment. Before and after his stay in the hospital he was the guest of Commodore Vanderbilt. Mrs. Vanderbilt was a cousin of Mrs. McTyeire's; they had been intimate companions in Mobile, Alabama, and the Bishop had been the pastor of her and her mother's church. The two families had maintained their connection since, and it was natural that the Bishop should be invited to the Vanderbilt home. Letters recently discovered show the progress of the friendship and mutual admiration of the two men that led finally to the donation. The legend has persisted, given support by Chancellor Garland, that the Bishop did not ask for the money and that almost “accidentally” the Commodore gave him the large check as he left for home. All the evidence shows that they talked often about the plans. Large credit must be given to Mrs. Vanderbilt for turning the mind and heart of her husband to the South and to the particular appeal of the Bishop, and to Dr. Deems who was her pastor and who had become a frequent visitor to the Vanderbilt home and, increasingly, an adviser of the Commodore. They prepared the way for the Bishop, who in letters to his wife wrote:

“My hint to you in the last letter is still on hand. Commodore comes up and sits and talks on a *plan*. If it comes out, as indications promise, it will be very important. Say not a word to anybody but Mary [her sister, Mrs. Hamilton]. Should matters result well, all will know it.

If not, there will be no disappointment. In any case, keep this to yourself."

Then on Monday, March 17:

"The good news hinted at before will have reached you before this comes to hand (evidently he and Dr. Deems had arranged for the announcement of the gift for the newspapers.) I leave this evening. But anxious as I am to get home, I must attend to this business while I am at it—and use present opportunities . . . must stop off for twelve hours at Syracuse, and examine their fine new college which they have been building. Also I may look at Cornell University buildings—so getting the advantage of other models before we adopt our own."

Perhaps Chauncey M. Depew, the Commodore's lawyer, came as near as anybody else stating what may have happened between the Bishop and the Commodore. At the Vanderbilt Commencement in 1895 he said:

"When Bishop McTyeire came to him with this project of building a university in Tennessee, everybody about him pronounced it the most hopeless and Quixotic task. Come to Commodore Vanderbilt, a man without sentimentalism, a man who had won the most distinguished success in the material world without education, and ask him to contribute money to build a university and that in a distant part of the country, which he never saw! Well, we all looked upon the scheme as something which might be undertaken by a minister, but hardly by any other profession.

"He presented that scheme to the Commodore; he had an easy entrance to and through that beautiful woman, his wife, and a good Methodist, and he understood instantly what the Commodore's make-up was, and what were the workings of his mind. He didn't put any sentiment in it; he didn't talk about these young men who would be educated for the future like other men; he didn't use the oldtime argument, which would have fallen over the old man like water off a duck's back, but he simply said to him: 'Commodore, our country has been torn to pieces by a Civil War; you were on one side and we were on the other; we want to repair this damage, and in a practical way, and we want to accomplish two things: one, that the contribution to repair this disaster shall come from a representative man of the North, and the other, that the contribution should be made in a way that is the most practical in lifting the country to which I belong, and that is by educating the youth.'

"The Commodore's answer was instantaneous, and it was: 'I want to unite this country, and all sections of it, so all the people shall be one, and a common country as they were before. Though I never had any education, no man has ever felt the lack of it more than I have,

and no man appreciated the value of it more than I do and believes more than I do what it will do in the future. How much do you want?" The Bishop stated his sum, and the Commodore drew his check for it instantly."

When the Board of Trust of Central University met in Nashville ten days after the Bishop's return from New York, it was found that the Commodore had laid down certain conditions upon which he made the gift. Bishop McTyeire was to be the president of the Board for life and was to receive a salary of \$3,000 in addition to his salary as Bishop. Vanderbilt had wanted the Bishop to resign from the episcopacy and devote his entire attention to the institution, but the Bishop was as much a churchman as the Commodore was a railroad man. He became, therefore, the executive head with veto power over the actions of the Board. He had entire charge of all the financial transactions involved in the purchase of grounds and the construction of buildings, which in the end amounted to \$400,000. He made all contracts with the members of the faculty. Rarely in the history of American education has an executive had so much power entrusted to him. The Commodore wanted him to manage and run the University as he managed his railroads.

The Bishop kept the Commodore informed of every detail of the plans, and when correspondence was inadequate visited him in New York and at Saratoga Springs. The Commodore, fortunately, made no demand that the church raise funds to match his; if he had done so, if for instance he had made his payment of the first donation conditional on the raising of an additional \$500,000, the University would have died "a-borning." Instead, he added another \$100,000 in March, 1874, another in December, 1875, and in June, 1876, when he felt that he did not have long to live, summoned the Bishop to New York to receive \$300,000, thus rounding out a million. This paid all the costs of grounds and buildings except the \$28,000 collected by the citizens of Nashville, and left an endowment of \$600,000 invested in railroad bonds that yielded 7 per cent. That million dollars looked as big as fifty million would now. William H. Vanderbilt, the son of the Commodore, before 1885 added \$300,000 to the endowment and gave more than \$150,000 for the building of Wesley Hall, Science Hall, and the Gymnasium.

But money alone would not solve the problems of launching a university. On the day that the original gift was announced Bishop McTyeire wrote to Dr. Landon C. Garland, the leading layman of the Southern Methodist Church and the foremost educational leader of the South, who had been very active in launching Central University:

"Before this comes to your hands, you will have heard good news concerning our university project. *The Lord has opened windows in heaven for us, that this thing might be.* Today I leave for Nashville and telegraph

Dr. Green to call a meeting of the Board of Trust for Wednesday, March 26, in Nashville . . . I write this to say to you how very desirous I am to meet you at this meeting of the Board. If you cannot come then I must go and see you.

"Circumstances require us to move with all reasonable rapidity. We must have plans for building, etc.—and you know more than all of us on this as well as on many other subjects. Allow me to say I should feel very uncomfortable under the responsibility laid upon me by our generous Commodore Vanderbilt, did I not promise myself much and valuable counsel from yourself. When I see you, I can explain more fully why we must move off as soon as things can be got ready—and they must be ready as soon as possible."

On May 28, 1873 he wrote again:

"Without your mind being known I desire to do nothing in these matters. It is an infelicity that you are not near enough to be consulted at every step. . . . Allow me to say that there is but one thought in the Board of Trust on a certain point, that is, that you are to be prominent in any faculty of instruction that may be made up. This desire is *universal*. I pray that you may live long to see the thoughts of your heart established, and your strength may be preserved 'til you have given shape and consistency to the University, and made it a success."

It is no wonder that the Bishop should have turned to Dr. Garland for help in the selection of the faculty, in the arrangement of the curriculum, and in the statement of the general policies of the University. He had for him the greatest reverence growing out of the fact that Garland had been his teacher at Randolph-Macon College. They had both come from Virginia to Alabama in the "forties" and had been on the most intimate terms at two General Conferences of the Southern Methodist Church. McTyeire had had such men as Garland in mind when in 1866 he had led the fight for laymen to have their share in the legislation and counsel of the church. In 1869 he and Dr. Summers had requested Garland to write a series of articles for the *Nashville Advocate*, the central organ of the Southern Methodist Church, on "An Educated Ministry" (October 9 to November 13, 1869). He, McTyeire, A. L. P. Green, D. C. Kelley, and others had recognized that the Methodist Church had passed the pioneering stage, that it must henceforth have in mind large city congregations and various enterprises of intensive work. In other words the circuit rider, however impressive and powerful he may have been, must give way to better trained ministers. They did not underrate the evangelistic spirit nor a religion based upon strong emotion, but they realized that as the laity grew in intelligence and efficiency there was need for men of large and liberal outlook.

No better statement of their ideas had been made than in the articles by

Dr. Garland. The time had arrived, he declared, for the institution of means whereby a higher intellectual culture might be imparted to its ministers. Times had changed. Much needed to be combatted in modern thought. "Infidelity due to science and materialism," he said, "is stalking through the land with brazen front. These new assaults upon Christianity—new forms of heresy—call for a clergy intellectually alive."

Dr. Garland was not present at the first meeting of the Board, but he wrote a letter in which he outlined his views at some length. It made a deep impression on the Bishop and on the entire Board. He insisted that a few departments of the highest grade would do more credit than many of inferior character. "Start nothing," he said, "in a crippled condition—make people regret that you have not more." He regarded dormitories as "the greatest curse that attaches to university education." He advocated separate buildings for chemistry, physics, geology, and natural history, and stressed the importance of an observatory. It would be well not to leave the details of such buildings to an architect but to practical, scientific men. He cited buildings at Bonn or Heidelberg as the best arranged scientific buildings and suggested that the Board consult Professor Agassiz of Harvard as to the details of such buildings. Most of all, however, he was concerned with "brains" as the greatest necessity in the institution.

Later, to a meeting of the Board in Memphis, January 17, 1874, he outlined, at Bishop McTyeire's request, his conception of the organization of the university: (1) the Biblical Department with four chairs; (2) the Department of Literature, Science and Philosophy, with eleven chairs, headed by the School of English Language and Literature and including, besides the Classics and Modern Languages, Oriental languages and literature, and also chairs of Chemistry, theoretical and practical, Natural History, Applied Mathematics, Engineering, and Mental and Moral Philosophy; (3) The Law Department with a dean and six professors, and (4) the Medical Department with a dean and ten professors. The Normal School, which had been suggested in the original charter, should be postponed. A rather ambitious organization which was not to be realized for many years, but an ideal prophetic of reality.

But there were other reasons why Dr. Garland was particularly fitted to cooperate in planning a university. He had been connected with educational institutions almost continuously for forty-five years. Although at various times he had been called into administrative and executive positions, notably as President of the University of Alabama for twelve years, he had never ceased to be a scholar. He was a scholar in a somewhat traditional sense, not a technical scholar according to modern standards. He had much of that general culture which included an intimate knowledge of the classics, a profound knowledge of the Bible, and considerable acquaintance with English literature, but there was never a time when he was not pri-

marily interested in physics, astronomy, and mathematics. His library and notebooks give evidence of his familiarity with French and German scholars in these respective fields. He prepared two textbooks in mathematics. Even at Washington College, the predecessor of Washington and Lee University, when he was barely twenty years old he insisted on apparatus and laboratories that would enable him to do his work of teaching and research. At Randolph-Macon and at the University of Alabama he made observations and calculations that showed the most meticulous and concentrated work. At Alabama he inherited the telescope and physical apparatus that had been secured by F. A. P. Barnard, who was professor there from 1840-1854, and at the University of Mississippi he inherited still better telescope and physical apparatus that had also been collected by Barnard, who later became President of Columbia University.

It was natural, therefore, that Garland should have been elected professor of physics and astronomy at Vanderbilt, and that he should continue to teach these subjects even after he had resigned his chancellorship in 1893. His age and his general duties as chancellor prevented his going any farther with his research work. All of this is to say that he knew what scholarship was, what specialization meant in a university faculty. Furthermore, his wide acquaintance with Southern institutions extending from Virginia to Mississippi fitted him to survey the field for prospective professors at Vanderbilt. His correspondence with Bishop McTyeire and others shows that he was aware of all the men who were in any way available. Every effort was made to secure scholars of eminence and prestige for the new institution. One by one they passed before the observation of the Bishop or the Chancellor or both. It may be said with all certainty that the men selected for the first faculty constituted perhaps the most distinguished group of scholars that up to that time had ever been assembled in the South. How they were selected appears in the letters of the Bishop and the Chancellor, which have been recently added to the archives of the University.

Certain general observations may be made as to the members of the faculty finally elected. The salary of a full professor was \$2,500 and a house, and it is safe to say that that was the largest salary then paid by any Southern institution, though not necessarily the largest promised salary. An instance of the importance of this fact is seen in the case of the first professor of mathematics, William LeRoy Broun, who although a Master of Arts graduate of the University of Virginia and a close friend of many of the professors there, chose Vanderbilt because of the larger salary given at that time (1875).

The majority of the faculty were men of considerable prestige and influence, some of them scholars in the old sense rather than in the modern. Unquestionably their supposed ability to draw students from a rather wide territory had its influence. In the Academic Department Professor Lips-

comb, who was asked to give lectures for half the year on philosophy and criticism, had been chancellor of the University of Georgia; Professor Lupton had been President of the University of Alabama from 1860 to 1874; and Dr. Garland, as has already been seen, had had a long educational experience in institutions from Virginia to Mississippi. In the Biblical Department, which was so closely associated with the Academic, Dr. T. O. Summers, Dean and Vice-Chancellor, had been for years editor of the *Nashville Christian Advocate* and of the *Southern Methodist Review*, and was known throughout the church as its ablest theologian. Professor A. M. Shipp had taught History for ten years at the University of North Carolina and had been president of Wofford College for ten years; Dr. John C. Granbery had been chaplain in Lee's army and of the University of Virginia and later pastor of the leading church in Richmond, Virginia. William LeRoy Broun graduated from the University of Virginia in 1850 and was one of the most popular students who ever went there. He taught at the University of Georgia before and after the Civil War. His natural forte was applied mathematics, and he had been very much disappointed at the failure of the Georgia State College of Agriculture to do what was expected of it. For that reason he was available for the appointment to Vanderbilt in 1875. Professor Joynes said of him that he was "the foremost representative among all the survivors of his generation of the ideal type of the Southern gentlemen, scholar and teacher." He was "able, wise, and good, brave as a lion, yet gentle as a woman; modest as he was great, a generous friend and wise counselor, patriotic and far-sighted, progressive yet prudent." During the Civil War he had been superintendent of the Confederate arsenal at Richmond and thus associated with General Gorgas and Professor John W. Mallet. Professor Minor of the University of Virginia said that "after Jackson and Lee no man that served under President Davis was a more necessary part of all that was accomplished than Col. LeRoy Broun."

Side by side with these older men was a group of younger scholars, not so widely known, but destined to become eminent in their respective fields of study and research. From Washington and Lee came Edward S. Joynes as professor of modern languages; he had graduated from the University of Virginia before the war, had taught there and at William and Mary, and had studied at German universities. From the same institution came Milton W. Humphreys, a graduate of that institution and a distinguished student at Leipzig where he took his Doctor's degree in the classics. It was not altogether an all-Southern team, however. James M. Safford, somewhat older than the men just mentioned, had been born in Ohio, had taken graduate work at Yale, and had distinguished himself by a volume on the *Resources of Tennessee*, still considered as one of the ablest geological studies ever made by an American scholar. Alexander Winchell, who shared the professorship of geology and natural history with Safford, spent half his year

at Syracuse University and half at Vanderbilt, and later at the University of Michigan became a most distinguished geologist. Professor Arnold, adjunct professor of Latin, had also studied in Germany.

It is rather remarkable that there was only one preacher in the list, while in Southern colleges at this time, even in state universities, a large proportion of the faculty were likely to be preachers. There were at least four who were not members of the Methodist church—Humphreys and Safford were Presbyterians, Joynes and Broun were Episcopalians. From the beginning the Law and Medical departments were organized with men regardless of denominational affiliations.

The faculty selected and at their post, the main building in which all the affairs of the University were carried on completed, the scientific apparatus that had been purchased by Garland and Lupton from all parts of Europe at a cost of over \$30,000 assembled, the University was ready to begin its work. Two days of dedication and inauguration—October 3 and 4, 1875—were attended with much pomp and ceremony. Sermons by two of the Bishops (Doggett and Wightman), addresses by Governor Porter, Bishop McTyeire, and Chancellor Garland, a varied musical program, and most striking of all, the chief address by Dr. Charles F. Deems which sounded the note of a broad and liberal institution in which there must be no conflict between science and religion. The most dramatic moment was when Dr. Deems at the end of his address brought a message from the Commodore and pointing to his portrait that had been placed on the walls of the chapel said, "Cornelius, thy prayer is heard, and thine alms are had in remembrance in the sight of God."

The following day students matriculated, and during the year in all the departments there were 307 enrolled, of whom less than half were in the Academic department, 52 in the Biblical, 25 in the Law, and 115 in the Medical. They came from a pretty wide stretch of country—188 from Tennessee, 28 from Alabama, 26 from Kentucky, 23 from Mississippi, 11 from Arkansas, eight from Georgia, five from Texas, three each from Missouri, South Carolina, and Louisiana, two each from Florida and Illinois, and one each from North Carolina, Virginia, and China. The following year there were 382, and the next year 405. At the end of the fifth year, 1880-1881, the number had grown to 603—262 from Tennessee, 54 from Alabama, 37 from Arkansas, 31 from Georgia, 67 from Kentucky, 41 from Mississippi, 63 from Texas, and others from every other Southern state, and some from other regions.

When one looks behind the figures, the facts are none too flattering. A majority in all these years were in the Medical, and after 1879, the Dental departments, which were to all intents and purposes separate institutions located in other parts of the city, with low standards of admission and graduation that were characteristic of American professional schools at that time.

The Academic and Biblical schools were hampered by a conglomerate mass of students in every stage of preparation. Sub-college classes had to be provided because there were not a half dozen academies in this whole region which could prepare boys for college, and of course there were no public schools with high schools except in a few cities. How could a "university" be moulded out of these diverse elements?

The student body was lacking in unity of interests and purpose. The students soon began to realize some of the disadvantages under which they lived. For several years the administration was opposed to dormitories except for the theological students, and residences in which they might have boarded were far away from the campus. There was no social life. Fraternities were outlawed from the beginning and until 1883, and even then fraternity members were debarred from university honors. The rules required that students sign a pledge that they would not attend horse-races, theatres, drinking and billiard saloons, and "other places of dissipation." If they wanted to publish a newspaper in which news and criticisms might be aired, they were told that the time was not opportune, or if they did there must be strict supervision by the faculty. The one constructive support by the faculty of student activities was that of the literary societies. Intercollegiate athletics did not start for a decade.

All was not well, then, despite the fine prospects that had been hailed at the beginning. More serious than student discontent was a growing restlessness and even insurgency in the faculty. In 1878 three of the faculty were dismissed, or rather their chairs abolished—one for alleged excessive drinking, another for incompetence, and a third for his views on evolution. These men all had friends who resented their treatment. The following year the faculty sent in a protest to the Board of Trust against the reduction of their salaries, contending that a contract had been broken without their being even consulted. Because the Bishop was angry they considered that they were marked men, and the question at each commencement was, "Who next?" By 1885 all the original members had either died or gone to other institutions except the Chancellor and Safford. There was a general complaint at the undue authority held and exercised by a single man.

So much needs to be said to give some idea of what may be called the second period in Bishop McTyeire's administration. One of the most serious aspects of it was that seemingly there was a growing tendency towards a less liberal policy, towards even an ecclesiasticism or denominationism that had not been apparent in the early years. It was an unfortunate fact that men who went away had been either Episcopalians or Presbyterians, and their places were supplied in every case, until 1886, by Methodists—three of them sons of Methodist preachers. There developed a feeling in the larger public that Vanderbilt was primarily a Methodist institution.

Henry Watterson said, after delivering the commencement address, that Vanderbilt impressed him as an ecclesiastical institution.

If the University reached its lowest tide in 1885, it was apparent to those who were on the inside that 1886 marks the beginning of a definite period of constructive work and progress that was continued throughout the rest of Bishop McTyeire's administration (he died in 1889), and throughout the years 1889 to 1893, when Chancellor Garland became the chief executive officer of the University. At the meeting of the Board of Trust in 1886 Dr. W. F. Tillett, who had been at the University first as chaplain and instructor in systematic theology, then as adjunct and full professor in successive years, was elected Dean of the Biblical Department and began a series of reforms that greatly improved that department both in its faculty and student body. The Engineering Department, which had been heretofore simply a part of the Academic Department, was made a separate department under the leadership of Dean Olin H. Landreth. He soon brought into the department younger professors like Magruder and Thornburg, who in process of time developed the various types of work that are associated with a well-organized engineering department.

But the most far-reaching changes that occurred during that same meeting of the Board was the selection for the Academic Department of James Hampton Kirkland as Professor of Latin, William L. Dudley as Professor of Chemistry, and John T. McGill as adjunct professor of Chemistry, all of whom were young men thoroughly trained in the best universities of this country and abroad and destined to play an important part in the future work of the University. In fact, since 1881 the Academic faculty had been strengthened by the appointment of such men to the various departments. Whatever mistakes may have been made by Bishop McTyeire in the selection of the original faculty, or in the treatment of them in the period discussed, were overcome by his wise and foreseeing selection of their successors. They were younger men and therefore without experience and without reputation, but in a short time they established themselves as a unit working for the improvement of the University.

In 1881 W. M. Baskervill, who had been trained at Randolph-Macon under Thomas R. Price, had studied for two years at Leipzig whence he had received his Doctor's degree, and had taught at Wofford College, was elected Professor of English. Chancellor Garland from the beginning had advocated a full and independent chair of English, and had returned to his suggestion in almost every annual report; but—as in other colleges and universities—English had been combined with modern languages, or had been associated, as in the case of Price, with the classics. At the University of Virginia, for instance, it was related to the department of philosophy, and not until 1882 was Dr. James M. Garnett elected to the chair of English. Baskervill was well prepared to teach Anglo-Saxon and Middle Eng-

lish and was soon preparing an Anglo-Saxon grammar and an Anglo-Saxon reader that established him as a scholar of first rank, but also from the beginning he emphasized the study of modern English classics, and eventually became the first historian of the new movement in Southern literature that characterized the 80's and 90's. He was withal a charming gentleman, an inspiring teacher, and had much to do with extending the influence of the University throughout the South and indeed the nation. He especially prepared a number of English scholars for Southern colleges and universities—men who in time proved themselves to be not only scholars but educational leaders. As son-in-law of Bishop McTyeire—and never did nepotism, if such it was, show itself so advantageously to an institution—he came at once into a position of leadership in the faculty, whose policies he helped to shape rapidly after 1885.

In 1882 Dr. William J. Vaughn, then Professor of Mathematics at the University of Alabama, was elected to that chair at Vanderbilt. Both the Bishop and the Chancellor had wanted him for the original faculty, for the Chancellor had taught him at the University of Alabama and had become thoroughly convinced of his special mastery of mathematics and astronomy—as well as of his all-round scholarship and culture; but in 1875 Vaughn could not break away from an institution to which he was obligated. He may be said to have blended the virtues of traditional scholarship and modern scholarship. No man was ever connected with the University who had such a wide range of knowledge. He could read at least a dozen languages, including Sanskrit and Russian. The story was often told by Dr. Kirkland that, when he was a student in Germany, a bookseller had informed him that Vaughn had ordered more books in Russian than any other man in America. Furthermore, his knowledge of history was nothing less than colossal; for instance, his collection of books on Napoleon was one of the most complete in existence, and he was equally conversant with books on American history. It was natural that he should have become chairman of the committee on the Library, and indeed, librarian, and that with the limited funds at his disposal, he achieved remarkable results, trying in every way to furnish the members of the faculty with books necessary for their research. One of the most valuable contributions ever made to the library was his large personal collection which he left to the University at his death in 1912. He never wrote anything himself, except an occasional article; but as a teacher, as the friend of students, and as a sympathetic colleague, he left a permanent impression upon the University, which he served for thirty years.

In the same year—1882—Dr. Charles Forster Smith, who had graduated at Wofford College, studied at Harvard, taken his Doctor's degree at Leipzig, and taught at Wofford and Williams, was elected Professor of Modern Languages at Vanderbilt. As a matter of fact he was not prepared for that

chair, especially in Romance Languages, but when Humphreys resigned in 1883 Smith was elected Professor of Greek—a position he held until 1894, when he was called to the same chair in the University of Wisconsin. Smith's editions of the third and fourth books of Thucydides and later his translations of that historian for the Loeb Library of the Classics were begun, and to some extent finished, while he was at Vanderbilt. He immediately became prominent in the meetings and the publications of the American Philological Association and the American Classical Association. His seminars at Vanderbilt, carried on in the most approved fashion of Leipzig and Johns Hopkins, helped to lay the foundations of genuine graduate work.

But Smith's chief contribution to the development of Vanderbilt was his championship of the idea that school, college, and university work should be sharply differentiated in the South. In two articles that he wrote for the *Atlantic Monthly* on "Southern Schools and Colleges" (December, 1884 and November, 1885) he described the educational chaos that existed in the South—the lack of secondary schools of high order, the tendency to establish colleges of low rank instead of schools, the failure of colleges to adopt any sort of standards of admission, the inadequate training of teachers either for school or college, and the lack of financial support by either church or state. With the zeal of a crusader he followed up these articles with special articles in Southern newspapers and journals, and, what was more important, by the effort to secure meetings between institutions of learning that might lead to higher standards of admission and graduation. As early as 1888 he and Baskervill led in the organization of the Tennessee Association of Colleges and Schools. It was a small group at first but was destined to grow into the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools organized in Atlanta in 1895. He, like Baskervill, was well acquainted throughout the South, was able to draw a small number of graduate students to Vanderbilt, and to send them forth as teachers in other colleges and universities.

It was quite natural that Baskervill and Smith should have advocated James H. Kirkland as Professor of Latin, when Dr. William J. Dodd resigned in 1886 because of ill health. They had taught Kirkland at Wofford and had witnessed his first teaching there, and had thus become impressed with his possibilities. They were largely responsible for his going to Leipzig in 1883. They had followed his brilliant career in Germany. It was not difficult to convince Bishop McTyeire that he was the man needed for the chair of Latin, for the Bishop had known his father in his early days as a minister in South Carolina. Kirkland, although only twenty-seven years of age, proved himself a really great teacher, and was on his way to pre-eminence in classical scholarship when he was elected Chancellor in 1893. He too conducted seminars of the most advanced type and sent some of his students to teach in other colleges. He followed the leadership of Basker-

vill and Smith in their campaign for higher standards of admission and graduation and took a leading part in the study of the curriculum.

A few weeks after Kirkland was elected Dr. William L. Dudley was elected Professor of Chemistry. He came from quite a different environment and had had a different training. He was a graduate of the University of Cincinnati and was teaching chemistry in the Medical School. The attention of the Vanderbilt authorities was called to him by Professor J. W. Mallet, the most distinguished scholar in chemistry that then taught in the South. Thinking of resigning from the University of Virginia, he recommended Dudley as his successor, but on second thought he remained at the University. His recommendation was sufficient. Dudley had established himself already as especially adept in applying chemistry to industry. He was very active in the Cincinnati Industrial Exposition of 1885, arranging many of the details of building and exhibits. There, as later at Vanderbilt, he could hold his own with the most prominent business leaders. A man of great social charm and magnetism—he might have been a prince in any court of the world—he did much to establish a relationship between Vanderbilt University and the city of Nashville. In 1896 he had a large part in arranging and managing the “Tennessee Centennial Exposition.” An Episcopalian, he represented the return to the broader policy that was evident in the selection of the early faculty. His relation to the student body proved to be one of his great contributions to the University; for by his personal contacts, as well as by his teaching he became the friend of more students than any other man that ever taught at the University. His most signal contribution to the University and to the South was his handling of the athletic problems which led to the establishment of the Southern Athletic Association in 1894, an association of which he was president from then until his retirement from active duty in 1913.

A striking illustration of the change in the relation between the faculty and the president of the Board of Trust is seen in an account that Dr. Dudley once wrote of a conversation between him and the Bishop. Previous to 1886 there had practically been no athletics at Vanderbilt, only gymnasium work that did not appeal any too much to students, and now and then a baseball game with Sewanee. There was no system, no supervision, and no responsibility. In the spring of 1886 an athletic association was formed with Baskervill as chairman, and Vanderbilt had its first “field day” down in a far away part of the city. Dudley soon became interested in the situation. He found that the boys had no chance to play, even tennis. He finally decided to go to see the Bishop and pointed out as the cause of gambling, drinking, fraternity rows, and other evils that had called for sharp discipline by the faculty the failure of the University to provide wholesome and normal sports. The Bishop who had never thought of it responded quickly to the suggestion. “What could we do?” he asked. Dudley an-

swered by saying there was a part of the campus that would afford a good place for tennis courts. "Well," said the Bishop, "let's go see Mr. Douglas" (the officer in charge of the grounds), and soon the courts were in order. Later Dr. Dudley approached him on the subject of providing a running track on another part of the campus. Again the Bishop responded sympathetically and provided a track that later developed into a baseball and football field, although it broke his heart to cut down some of the trees with which he had taken so much pains. Thus was laid the foundation of the athletic program which Dr. Dudley directed so wisely and bravely for so many years.

The fact is that the Bishop in his later years learned to work with the faculty, and to rely upon them, much more than he formerly did. Instead of the old suspicions and misunderstandings and sensitiveness that developed in an earlier period, there was a spirit of cooperation. He once said to the faculty that he got more in meeting with them than in meeting with the Board of Trust.

The crowning result of this new spirit in the faculty was a report prepared by the Committee on Schedule and Course of Study and presented to the Board in June, 1887. They spent months in discussing the details of this report and finally on May 31, 1887, passed it in its final form. Never was a faculty report more patiently studied and developed, and never did the Board of Trust do a more courageous thing than to adopt it *in toto*. After years of complaint and recommendation from the Chancellor and the faculty all subcollegiate classes were abolished, and requirements for admission placed at about the standards afterwards proposed by the Carnegie Endowment. Entrance examinations were provided at important Southern centers. The "school" system gave way to the class system, and that led to a greater regularity in student work. As has been seen when students were allowed to enter any school they chose, there developed a situation in which students were high up in one school and low in another. Gradually there had been a transition from the school system to the class, and now the Academic Department was in line with the liberal arts colleges throughout the country. The class schedules led to a new class spirit that became the basis of the Alumni movement of later years. The raising of standards of admission and the abolition of sub-college classes led to a reduction in attendance (40 per cent in one year), but the administration stood firm. The number of preparatory schools steadily increased.

All these reforms were the result of team-work in the faculty and of the cooperation of McTyeire and Garland. Meanwhile, the faculty was being strengthened with other departments. After many changes in the modern language department Casimar Zdanowicz was elected to the chair in the fall of 1884 and continued until his untimely death in 1889. He brought a certain romantic glamour to the University community. His father

was a Polish nobleman who in the Revolution of 1848 settled in France (Alsace). His mother was a German. He was educated in Paris at the Sorbonne and in 1869 moved to New York. In the Franco-Prussian war he returned to France and enlisted in the French army in the artillery service. At the time of the debacle at Sedan he fled to Switzerland, but came back to Paris, where he studied and taught for several years. After teaching in at least two Southern colleges he was elected to the chair at Vanderbilt. He was much interested in the Modern Language Association and wrote for *Modern Language Notes*. His colleagues united in their tributes to him, Baskervill speaking of him as "an indefatigable worker, a patient and untiring teacher, a personality marked by chivalry and courtesy," and Chancellor Garland wrote: "Never in my history as a teacher more than sixty years have I ever had a colleague who was more faithful to duty or more enthusiastic in his labor." He died with many of his cherished tasks unfinished, but his son, who later graduated at Vanderbilt, has filled out his father's life by doing distinguished work in the same department at the University of Wisconsin.

He was succeeded by A. R. Hohlfeld and Waller Deering. Kirkland had known Hohlfeld at Leipzig and vouched for his scholarship, but even he would not have dared to prophesy his great work as a teacher and a scholar. Vanderbilt never had a better teacher; when in 1900 he went to the University of Wisconsin he organized perhaps the largest and most important department of German in the United States, and at the same time became so distinguished in scholarship that he was elected president of the Modern Language Association and has been for many years one of its leading spirits. Deering, who had graduated at Vanderbilt and had become a teaching fellow, received his Doctor's degree from Leipzig. He too went away from Vanderbilt after several years of successful teaching, to become head of the department of German at Western Reserve University and later dean of its graduate school.

Dr. John J. Tigert, who was one of the first matriculates at Vanderbilt and was later assistant instructor in the Biblical Department, became professor of Moral Philosophy after Dr. Granbery's promotion to the Episcopacy. Tigert had a prodigious capacity for work and a physical, intellectual, and moral force that made him a leading figure in the University community. His edition of Dr. Summers' *Systematic Theology*—made up from notes that he himself took from lectures—and his *Constitutional History of Methodism* were followed by his *Handbook of Logic*, which Noah K. Davis of the University of Virginia pronounced one of the best in the English language. It was no wonder that he should have been selected by the General Conference in 1890 as editor of the *Quarterly Review* and as book editor of the Publishing House, and that later he should have been elected Bishop, a position which he held for only a few months before his unexpected

death. He was always an enthusiastic alumnus of the University and left to the Vanderbilt Library a library of five thousand volumes—a very unusual private library of theological, philosophical, and historical books.

Dr. John T. McGill, who became adjunct professor of chemistry in 1886, after having studied a year at the University of Berlin, was a valuable ally of Dr. Dudley, and was later dean of the Pharmacy Department. While he did some research work he gave a great deal of time to the Alumni Association, of which he was one of the founders in 1879. As secretary, president, and historian of the Association he kept constantly on his mind and heart the relationship of such an organization and of individual alumni to the University. He early set himself to the task of preserving every article or memorandum that pertained to the history of the University or to alumni. For the year 1886-87 he ran a department of several pages in the *Vanderbilt Observer* in which he published the records of alumni, gave their addresses, printed contributions by them, and noted with special pride the increasing positions of responsibility held by them. In the face of the most discouraging results he was chairman of a committee to solicit funds for the creation of fellowships or scholarships. He took the lead in giving to the University a memorial bust of Chancellor Garland. His presidential address on "Investment in Universities" had as its primary appeal the awakening of alumni to their responsibilities. He secured from Bishop McTyeire an appropriation of one hundred dollars for helping him to secure the addresses of alumni, and he took a leading part in the annual meetings of the association. As evidence of his continued interest in the University he presented to the library in 1943 all the material that he had collected in the way of letters, newspaper clippings, reports of all kinds, the publications of the faculty and students—an invaluable collection of historical material the lack of which would have made almost impossible a history of the University. The fact that he is still alive and still active in the Alumni Association, in the Phi Beta Kappa Society, and in the Tennessee Academy of Science, is the best single exemplification of the evolution of the University from the old to the new.

At the same time that these new professors were bringing to the University increased reputation, a group of fellows and assistants was scarcely less significant than the main professors. The policy of Bishop McTyeire of providing funds for scholars and fellows now bore fruit. Not only the graduates of Vanderbilt but those of other colleges and universities were drawn to the University for graduate study. Men like Tigert, McGill, and Thornburg were enabled to pursue their careers, even from the earliest days. Some of these graduate students—notably Joshua Harrison, W. C. Branham, William Hughes, the Peoples brothers, James A. Robins, and many others at a later time—became leaders in establishing a high grade of private schools and academies. Others—notably H. N. Snyder, Alfred

Hume, Calvin S. Brown, E. B. Craighead, J. Perrin Smith, C. C. Ferrell, and others after being assistants at Vanderbilt were elected to chairs, not only in Southern colleges but in Eastern and Western. Perrin Smith went to Leland Stanford, A. T. Walker to the University of Kansas, Hans Oertel to Yale, Snyder, Craighead, and Waller to Wofford, W. A. Webb to Central, Hume, Brown and Bishop to the University of Mississippi, T. P. Thomas to the Woman's College at Baltimore, L. S. Merriam to a fellowship at Hopkins and later to an instructorship in Cornell. The most famous of them, E. E. Barnard, went in 1887 to the Lick Observatory, where he discovered the fifth satellite of Jupiter. The vision of Chancellor Garland was being realized, and Vanderbilt was serving especially the colleges and universities of its particular territory. This graduate work increased in the years to come, but it was particularly significant in the period of which we are speaking. The effect of all this on even undergraduates was seen in the fact that in the class of 1892 out of twenty-two who graduated eight returned for graduate work, most of them as fellows or assistants.

I have dwelt at length on this chapter in Vanderbilt's history (1886-1893) because I consider it one of the best illustrations of what a faculty can do in promoting the welfare of an institution. It has always been a mystery as to how the youngest of these men, and the last one to be elected to the faculty except Dudley, should have been elected Chancellor when the venerable Garland resigned in 1893. Be that as it may one can not fail to be impressed with the fact that the choice was Providential. From the beginning of his administration he made it plain that he would support wholeheartedly the reforms that had been wrought out by his colleagues, that there would be no backward step in the matter of educational standards. It was not long before he became an educational crusader in the organization of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.

It is not necessary to repeat here what I have already said in this magazine and at much greater length in my "Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt" and what has been said by others in the *QUARTERLY* and in the *Proceedings* of the Association.* A succinct summary of his administration would emphasize, in addition to the maintenance of standards, his bringing all departments of the University under the supervision and control of a central administration, his mastery of the technical aspects of financial problems that led to the confidence of educational foundations and to the consequent multiplying many times the financial resources of the institution, his long-drawn-out conflict with the Methodist church which ended in freeing the

* At the time of his death Chancellor Kirkland had for many years been President Emeritus of the Southern Association. In the November issue of 1939 (Volume III, pp. 517 to 536), appeared two evaluations of his services: "Chancellor James H. Kirkland and the Southern Association," by President Theodore H. Jack of Randolph-Macon Woman's College and the article referred by Professor Mims, "Chancellor James K. Kirkland and Vanderbilt University."—EDITOR.

stitution from any possibility of ecclesiastical interference, his patient devotion to the idea of a University center in Nashville, his building of one of the great medical schools of the country and laying the foundation of a graduate school with an adequate faculty and laboratories and library—all of which, I believe, are so well known as not to need repetition at this time. His acute, analytical, and powerful mind, his courage and patience in the face of great difficulties, his indomitable faith, are known of all men. One of the wisest actions of his administration was in preparing the way for his successor. When in 1935 he was urged by the faculty to withdraw his resignation, he said to a recently appointed Committee on Educational Policies, "Well, then, we must find a man who is prepared to be the Dean of the Senior College and the Graduate School and let him work here until we feel that he is able to assume the Chancellorship." After looking over the field he and the Committee unanimously agreed that Oliver C. Carmichael, then president of the Alabama College for Women, was the man. And so in 1937, after forty-four years of tireless and wise service, the "Old Chancellor" retired and the "New" was inaugurated.

During these seven years Chancellor Carmichael has met the most ardent hopes of those who are most concerned with the development of the University. He is popular with students, faculty, alumni, and the Board of Trust. He is a recognized leader in the Southern Association and in the Southern University Conference. He has won the support of educational foundations and may reasonably look forward to their continued help. He has just launched a campaign for nine million dollars that will lead to the expansion of research and professional work. His first achievement was in working out a closer affiliation with Peabody College and in a successful campaign for a library that would serve the institutions that constitute the University Center—a million dollar building and an endowment of more than a million. The bequest of Frederick W. Vanderbilt amounting to nearly \$5,000,000, has served to tide the University through a period of confusion and threatened depression and has laid the foundation for the expansion program. At the present moment Vanderbilt is doing all it can for the winning of the War and the days of peace. The latest financial report shows that it has an endowment of approximately \$30,000,000, and material resources of \$9,000,000. Its enrollment of civilian students is 1,449, as contrasted with the pre-war enrollment of 1,800. The future seems bright.

An Historical Sketch of the University of Virginia

BY THOMAS PERKINS ABERNETHY

Professor of History

To say that Thomas Jefferson founded the University of Virginia is an under-statement of the facts. Not only did he lay the foundation: he designed and built the plant which stands as he left it, the picturesque center around which the larger University of today is grouped. But it is not only in brick and mortar that the builder's spirit is preserved. He believed that education should have a direct relation to the life of a democracy, that it should be made available to all who were mentally competent to take it, and that students should be intellectually free and capable of self-government. To trace the fate of the plans which he so carefully made for the operation of his experiment in higher education is to study human nature in one of its most interesting manifestations. For a full generation after the opening of the University, only its architecture and its high academic standards appeared to perpetuate the ideals of the founder; but as time went on, the students learned to govern themselves and academic freedom more and more prevailed, so that today one feels instinctively that the same spirit pervades the University which rests upon the hilltop of Monticello.

When in 1816 Mr. Jefferson, together with Madison, Monroe, and their Albemarle County friends, made plans for the establishment of Central College near the village of Charlottesville, they hoped that it would grow into something more important than a local institution. Considering their means, their views were indeed ambitious, but they proceeded at once to put them into effect. They secured a charter from the General Assembly, raised nearly \$40,000, purchased a site, and the Sage of Monticello—he is still referred to as Mr. Jefferson in Charlottesville—drafted the plan of an “academical village” to be constructed thereon. This was a slight modification of an earlier plan of his calling for “a small and separate lodge for each professorship, with only a hall below for his class, and two chambers above for himself; these lodges to be joined by barracks for a certain portion of the students, opening into a covered way to give a dry communication between all the parts, the whole of these arranged around an open square of grass and trees.”

Work was immediately started on one of the lodges, which now forms the front of the Colonnade Club. During the next year the General Assembly passed an act providing for the establishment of a state university, a commission was appointed to select the location and make the necessary arrangements, and an annuity of \$15,000 was appropriated for the maintenance of the institution. This commission met at the Rockfish Gap in the Blue

Ridge, and Mr. Jefferson was chosen president of the body. The Valley vigorously opposed the selection of Charlottesville as the site of the University; but Central College offered all its assets as an inducement, and Mr. Jefferson finally had his way. In 1819 the General Assembly chartered the University. The Governor and Council were to appoint a board of seven "Visitors" who were to choose a "Rector" to serve as chairman of the body. The Rector and Visitors appointed a member of the faculty to serve as chairman and to administer the routine affairs of the University subject to their direction.

Mr. Jefferson became the first Rector of the Board of Visitors, and he immediately set himself to the task of drafting plans for the buildings, arranging the curriculum, and employing the professors. With the advice of the distinguished architect, Benjamin Latrobe, he modified the original plan for Central College, and, at a cost of approximately \$300,000, produced his "academical village" essentially as it stands today. He provided for eight professorships: namely, ancient languages, modern languages, mathematics, natural philosophy (physics and astronomy), natural history (chemistry, botany, etc.), anatomy and medicine, moral philosophy (ethics and psychology), and law. No degrees were to be granted, and there was to be no fixed curriculum. Students might pursue whatever subjects they pleased, for as long or as short a time as they liked, but on completing the basic courses in any "school," as the eight departments were called, a certificate of graduation from that school was awarded. A thorough knowledge of Latin, however, was required of all graduates. This was the "elective" system which was retained, at least in part, until about the end of the century.

Mr. Jefferson faced a real difficulty in securing a faculty. He wished the principle of separation of church and state carried out at the University, and for that reason he preferred to employ laymen. He was especially eager to secure the services of his friend Dr. Thomas Cooper, but this gentleman's lack of orthodoxy rendered him obnoxious to many. Finally, having failed in several attempts to secure American instructors, the Visitors sent young Francis Walker Gilmer to England to search for academic talent, and he succeeded in recruiting five of the first professors. However, he could not find a layman in England to teach Natural History, and John P. Emmet, of Charleston, S. C., was engaged for that chair. He was a native of Ireland and nephew to the famous Irish patriot of that name. Two Virginians were employed—George Tucker to teach Moral Philosophy, and John Lomax to teach Law. Mr. Jefferson maintained that these two subjects, so closely related to political thought, should be taught by none but native Americans.

Each professor was allowed the use of one of the pavilions, much enlarged since the drafting of the original plans for Central College, and a salary of one thousand dollars plus the tuition fees from his students. All eight in-

cumbents were highly talented, two of them, George Long and Thomas H. Key, returning to England after a few years to become distinguished professors in the University of London. Professor Long introduced the study of comparative philology into his teaching of the classics, and his successors, Gessner Harrison and Basil Gildersleeve, also followed this practice, as did Professor Blaetterman, who taught German, Anglo-Saxon, French, Spanish, and Italian. Lectures were given in all the schools, and methods of instruction were generally more advanced than in contemporary American institutions of learning. Such high intellectual standards were maintained that over half the students usually dropped out after the first year.

On account of the late arrival of three of the professors from England, the University did not open its doors until March 7, 1825, with 68 students in attendance. For just one year the Founder was able to stroll about the grounds and contemplate his handiwork with a degree of satisfaction. He often invited the professors and students to dine with him at Monticello, and he was an adept in putting the young men at ease. He had high hopes for them. Expecting them to be mentally mature and morally sound, he planned a system of self-government for the University. The faculty was to elect a board of "censors" from among the students, which was to administer such few and simple rules of discipline as should be found necessary.

But the great democrat, already bearing the weight of years and debts, found his last days saddened by the failure of his system of self-government for the University. The student censors failed to perform their functions, rioting and disorder became rampant, and Professors Long and Key resigned their positions because of these disturbances. The Rector and Visitors now inaugurated a system of rigid discipline, and the faculty found it necessary to assume responsibility for maintaining order. The students were required to wear uniform, they had to arise at dawn and to retire to their rooms at nine o'clock in the evening. Even their spending money was doled out to them by officials of the University. But this system worked no better than had the other. Rioting continued, with particularly severe outbursts in 1836, 1840, and 1845.

It is difficult to account for this situation, even though college students were normally obstreperous until within recent years. Some were inclined to attribute the difficulties to the lack of religious influences at the University. A traveler from the University of Glasgow, writing in 1818, remarked: "The State of Virginia is about to establish a University of the most aspiring kind, and Jefferson, Madison, and some other of the great names of this western hemisphere, have combined their talents in framing its constitution. . . . From first appearances, there seems reason to anticipate that this proposed University will be a total failure; and from the well-known sentiments of its founders, on speculative and revealed truth, I cannot much regret that it should be so." It is more likely that the trouble arose from the fact

that the professors, who were also the disciplinarians, lived in too close proximity to the students, and that their ideas of discipline were altogether too rigid for a generation of young men who were brought up on ideas of freedom.

That the trouble was primarily the fault of the system and not of the students is demonstrated by the fact that conditions began to improve after the Honor System was adopted in 1842. This proudest tradition of the University was instituted under the influence of Professor Henry St. George Tucker, but it was really a matter of spirit rather than of law, and its development extended over a period of many years. Even in the early days of disorder, a student's word was always accepted without question. Fighting, even with professors, or breaking windows and doors, was one thing; lying was something else. The action of 1842 simply required the student to sign a pledge that he had received no aid on his examinations, and there seems to have been no trouble regarding infractions of this pledge even during the violent disorders of 1845-46. In 1845 the rule requiring students to wear uniform was abolished, and discipline naturally became less rigid in other respects. Within a decade relations between students and faculty became positively cordial. Gradually the young men took the Honor System into their own keeping and, quite independently of the faculty, ejected from the University any one of their number whom they adjudged guilty of dishonesty. Thus was Mr. Jefferson's ideal of student self-government established after many years.

Aside from these changes there were other influences at work which doubtless improved the morale of the student body. While the evangelical movement and various reforms were gaining momentum in the South, it would have been surprising if the University had remained unaffected by them. While the institution has never veered from the Jeffersonian ideal of separation of church and state, it was in keeping with the trend of Southern society that, toward the middle of the century, religion should come to play a larger part in the life of the students. A definite beginning was made in this direction when a regular chaplaincy was established in 1832—a movement inaugurated by the students themselves. Each year the faculty chose a clergyman to fill the place, the office being rotated among the different Protestant denominations. The salary was paid by voluntary contributions from the faculty and students, and controversial sectarian subjects were not allowed to be discussed in the sermons. As early as 1830 a Temperance Society was organized at the University, and exerted some influence among the students. In 1855 work was begun on Temperance Hall, and in the same year a parsonage was built for the use of the chaplain. In 1858 a University Young Men's Christian Association, the first of its kind in the country, was organized; and it is clear that by this time religion had come to play an important part in academic life, but all organizations were purely voluntary and unofficial.

While changes in the social life of the University came about gradually, the academic situation could be changed over night by action of the Faculty and Visitors. Such a transformation came about in 1831 when provision was made for granting the Master of Arts degree. Mr. Jefferson had opposed the granting of degrees on the ground that they were artificial embellishments. Furthermore, his plan of allowing students to select whatever subjects they wished, and to pursue them in any order that pleased them for as long as they liked, was doubtless intended to encourage mature young men to shape their education according to their individual needs or inclinations, bound by no traditional academic programs. The adoption of the Master's degree required no change in the organization of the University, but it substantially altered its nature. The attainment of this distinction required graduation in the schools of ancient languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, and moral philosophy. In 1833 completion of two modern languages was added to this program, and other courses were added later. But the requirements were always rigidly fixed, both Greek and Latin being mandatory and no electives allowed.

The M.D. degree had been granted to graduates of the School of Medicine from the beginning, and in 1840 the LL.B. degree was awarded graduates of the School of Law. In 1848 the A.B. degree was adopted, but it was not made a prerequisite for the Master's, and was looked upon as a consolation for those who failed to meet the requirements for the Master of Arts, which, throughout the century, remained the highest academic award of the University. It was attained by a very small percentage of the students in the academic department, but it maintained high standards of achievement and intrenched the classics as a central feature of the curriculum of the University. Thus the traditional character of higher education was maintained and disseminated throughout the South by such graduates as Henry Tutwiler in Alabama and David F. Boyd in Louisiana.

It was during the period of the 1850's that the University really came into its own. The enrollment rose from 138 in the session of 1845-46 to 645 in that of 1856-57—the highest figure that it ever attained during the century. This growth was due partly to the fact that Southern students were quitting Northern colleges and coming to Virginia, but it was due also to the high reputation which the University had by this time attained. Though Mr. Jefferson had not lived to see the fruition of his work, Madison had succeeded him as Rector, and his close friend, Joseph C. Cabell, who as a State Senator had secured from the Assembly the legislation that resulted in the founding of the University, served on the Board of Visitors until his death in 1857. Mr. Jefferson's grandson, Thomas Jefferson Randolph, was Rector of the Board from that year until 1864.

The growth in enrollment necessitated expanded facilities, and though the annual appropriation from the General Assembly was still only \$15,000,

means were found for enlarging the plant. In 1850 the professors' salaries were fixed at \$3,000 a year and tuition fees now went into the treasury. The faculty was not pleased with this arrangement, but during the session of 1857 it resulted in a surplus of \$38,544 in the budget. This revenue, supplemented by various loans and gifts, enabled the University to construct several new buildings. In 1853 an annex to the Rotunda was completed at a cost of approximately \$25,000. This was a rectangular brick structure housing classrooms and a lecture hall, and though it was in the Corinthian style of the Rotunda, its lines in no way harmonized with Mr. Jefferson's design. In 1857 the buildings were supplied with illuminating gas, and in 1859 a group of dormitories, known as Dawson's Row, was constructed. By this time the enrollment was so large that many students had to seek quarters beyond the grounds. This necessarily led to a further relaxation of the strict disciplinary regulations of the earlier years.

It is hard to believe, but faculty and students alike report that the young men of this period devoted most of their time to their studies, allowing not more than one or two hours around supper-time for recreation. The young ladies of the neighborhood were the greatest attraction, but the taverns at the "Corner" had their clientele. The Jefferson and the Washington literary societies were the oldest and most influential student organizations; but fraternities made their entrance when, in 1852, the D.K.E. established a chapter. There was nothing "collegiate" about student life, and organized athletics formed no part of it. Marbles and quoits were the principal games during the early years, the University furnishing the implements. During the session of 1859-60 a local cricket club was formed, but this English sport did not long survive. In 1851 a Polish gentleman, J. E. D'Alfonse, was authorized to give instruction in gymnastics, and a crude gymnasium was constructed for his classes.

The number of schools as fixed by the act of incorporation was not changed during all this time, though several professors had been added to those of Law and Medicine. An act of 1856 did away with this limitation, and during the next year a School of History and General Literature and a chair of Anatomy were established. The work in ancient languages was now divided between two schools, one of Latin and one of Greek and Hebrew.

The students of the University had always been interested in politics, but they were not faithful to the party of Mr. Jefferson. In 1838 only seven out of 206 were Democrats, nearly all the rest being state-rights Whigs. In 1861 they raised a secession flag over the Rotunda before Virginia had seceded, and five hundred students and alumni lost their lives during the War. The University kept its doors open and work proceeded as usual each session from the beginning of October to the beginning of July throughout the conflict. Two of the professors, Albert T. Bledsoe and Lewis Minor Coleman, resigned to serve with the Confederate Army, and the student

body dropped from more than six hundred to an average of sixty-four for the war years. When Sheridan marched through Charlottesville in 1864, the property of the University was in no way molested, nor did the Confederacy ever appropriate the buildings for war purposes.

When peace came, the University found its financial resources much reduced and its buildings in a sad state of repair. The professors having again been granted the right to receive the tuition fees of their students, they proceeded to borrow money on their own credit in order to make necessary repairs on buildings and grounds. The Visitors entrusted the financial management of the institution for the session 1865-66 to the Chairman of the Faculty, and the professors hoped for an enrollment of one hundred fifty or two hundred. Two hundred fifty-eight actually registered, and the year proved to be a definite financial success. The office of Proctor was restored the next year, and the Visitors reassumed their responsibility for management of finances. Four hundred ninety students were enrolled for the session 1866-67. Although Reconstruction politics resulted in some changes in the personnel of the Board, these had no adverse effect upon the management of University affairs, and academic life went on according to much the same routine which it had followed before the War.

But the spirit of the place had changed in subtle ways, as the spirit of the whole South had changed. Many of the students were veterans of four years of war, and most of their families had been impoverished. Speaking of the lean decades following the War, Richard Heath Dabney, a distinguished alumnus and Professor of History for fifty years, said that throughout his student days his fraternity wanted to give a banquet, but its members were never all possessed of a dollar at the same time. Slightly over half the matriculates, as before the War, came from Virginia, and nearly all the others came from the South. An alumnus, writing of his student days from 1870-74, said, "If I were asked to characterize the prevailing traits of University life in the four happy years I spent there . . . I would say they could be comprised in two words—earnestness and seriousness."

But already an influence was beginning to appear which in coming years was to work a fundamental change in student life. During the first year after the War, the young men began to play the game of baseball in a haphazard manner, and presently teams were organized to represent different sections of the student body. By 1875 match games were being played with the college of Washington and Lee. Football made its unostentatious appearance in 1870, but it was 1888 before an intercollegiate game was played with Johns Hopkins University. It was during the same year that the first athletic association was organized. In 1892 the General Athletic Association was formed, land was purchased, and an athletic field constructed where Madison Hall now stands. At the same time work was begun on a gymnasium just opposite the playing field, and the next year Fayerweather

Hall was completed at a cost of \$30,000. The money was provided by a recent bequest, and at the time this was the largest and most complete gymnasium in the South. In 1901 work was started on a new and larger athletic field which was completed at a cost of \$10,000 and named for the director of athletics, the late Dr. William Lambeth.

At first the students took their athletic contests as a mild form of amusement, often regarded with a degree of condescension by the more serious-minded young men; but as intercollegiate athletics developed, sports were regarded more seriously. However, even to the present time, the students can take their games or leave them, and athletic letters are rarely seen. This is probably due to the fact that coats rather than sweaters are universally worn.

A more serious side of University life was reflected in the three major student publications. The eldest of these, the *Virginia University Magazine*, at first known as the *University Literary Magazine*, was established by the literary societies in 1856. The student annual, *Corks and Curls*, was founded in 1888, and *College Topics* appeared two years later.

As soon as the War was over, it seems to have been realized generally throughout the South that young men must now be trained for practical pursuits, and the University was not slow to demonstrate its awareness of the situation. In 1865 a School of Civil Engineering was organized, and two years later schools of Applied Mathematics and Analytical Chemistry were opened, the faculty having urged the measure and furnished half the necessary funds. The cause of scientific education was greatly advanced by several substantial bequests which were received by the University during this period. The first of these, amounting to \$100,000, was left in 1869 by Samuel Miller for the endowment of a chair of Natural History and Agriculture, which chair was established in 1872. In 1875 Lewis Brooks provided \$68,000 for the erection of the Brooks Museum of Natural History. Shortly thereafter Mr. W. W. Corcoran endowed chairs of Natural History, Moral Philosophy, and History; and in 1882 Mr. Leander J. McCormick was the principal donor of funds which made possible the construction and equipment of the McCormick Observatory. During the two years immediately following, the University Chapel was built with funds contributed by various friends and members of the University. In 1875 the annuity was finally increased by the Assembly from \$15,000 to \$30,000, and in 1884 it was again increased to \$40,000. Prior to 1861 the total gifts, not part of the permanent endowment, received by the University amounted to \$66,100; it is interesting to note that between 1861 and 1885—the time of direst need—they totaled \$613,100.

In the midst of this period of prosperity, the University suffered a heavier material blow than even the War had inflicted upon it. On Sunday morning, October 27, 1895, the Rotunda was gutted by fire and the Annex com-

pletely destroyed, involving the loss of most of the library, the excellent copy of Raphael's *School of Athens*, and many other treasures. But the next year the Visitors were authorized to borrow \$200,000, and Stanford White was engaged to rebuild the Rotunda and plan the group of buildings featuring Cabell Hall at the opposite end of the Lawn. The Rotunda was restored with certain modifications which rendered the general effect far better than it had been before the burning of the Annex.

While these material changes were taking place, the curriculum, too, was undergoing various modifications. The inauguration of new scientific and technical courses led, in 1868, to the establishment of the degrees of Civil Engineer, Mining Engineer, and Bachelor of Science. In 1880 the degree of Doctor of Philosophy was introduced, and the A.B. was made a prerequisite for this and for the Master's degree. In 1888 the standards for the A.B. were lowered, in that graduation in none of the schools was required and Greek was made an elective. The requirements for the Master of Arts remained essentially what they had always been—graduation in the original six academic schools. Even after the Ph.D. was introduced, the Master's degree was still looked on as the highest honor of the University, and the alumni were greatly distressed when, in 1891, the Visitors, acting contrary to the wishes of the faculty, made the provision that holders of the Bachelor's degree might attain the Master of Arts upon graduation in four academic schools selected with faculty advice. The result of these changes was that the A.B. degree presently came to be the standard degree; that the number of students in the higher courses dropped off; and that teachers now went out from the University with more modest preparation than when the Master of Arts was supreme. But the University had put itself more in line with the general trend of higher education in the United States. As for honorary degrees, none has ever been granted by the University to the present time.

Notwithstanding changes in the curriculum and the increased material and intellectual facilities of the University, which in 1899 consisted of twenty-one professors and two associates, the student body had never again reached the number of six hundred forty-five which it attained in 1857.

During all this period from the end of the War to the turn of the century, the University had been trying to adapt itself to an expanded program of practical scientific courses and to the need of adjusting its requirements to those of other American universities. While clinging throughout most of the period to the rigid requirements for the Master of Arts degree, it had adopted the elective principle for the A.B., and this degree was coming to supplant the older one which had taken on the nature of a graduate degree. Though graduate work had been carried on in some of the schools for a long time, and some of them had been granting professional degrees for many years, it was not until 1899 that "departments" of law, medicine,

engineering, agriculture, and the academic department were formally organized, with elected deans in charge of each. The "schools" now became subdivisions of the "departments," thus reversing the usual terminology. In 1904 a "Department of Graduate Studies" was organized, and the distinction between graduate and undergraduate work was more clearly recognized.

Prior to this time, the term had extended from the beginning of October to about the first of July, with Christmas Day the only holiday. Finally, during 1897-98 this was changed and the session made to run from the middle of September to the middle of June, with a week's vacation during the Christmas season, and the session divided into three terms.

Other changes now came rapidly. In 1900 an electric plant was built, and the new hospital was opened the following year. The gradual expansion of the hospital has resulted in the development of one of the leading Southern centers for medical research and instruction. It was during the same year that the practice of celebrating Mr. Jefferson's birthday as "Founder's Day" was inaugurated. An alumni association had been organized in 1838. It was reorganized in 1873, and in 1894 it commenced publication of the Alumni Bulletin. In 1902 it was again reorganized as the "General Alumni Association," and it now possesses a commodious building at the University from which its various activities are directed.

During the session 1904-05 the total enrollment was 662 students in all departments. This was only slightly more than the total for 1857, but the physical equipment, the fields of instruction, and the faculty personnel had been considerably increased. The duties of the Chairman of the Faculty had thus become more and more onerous, and some of the Visitors had maintained for several years that a President should be elected. This was opposed by others who wished to maintain the Jeffersonian tradition. In 1904 the proponents of the new plan triumphed, and Dr. Edwin A. Alderman, president of Tulane University, was elected the first president of the University of Virginia. He served with marked success until his death in 1931, when he was succeeded by Dr. John Lloyd Newcomb.

The student body now began to increase, and by 1915 there were one thousand registrants. The great majority of these were Virginians or Southerners, and the graduates of private schools outnumbered those from public schools until the session of 1916-17. At this time the faculty was composed of twenty-three full professors, four associate professors, and thirteen adjunct professors. The coming of war in 1917 naturally disrupted the ordered life of the institution, and the enrollment fell from over a thousand to seven hundred sixty. But a Reserve Officers' Training Corps and a Students' Army Training Corps were organized, and those of the faculty and student body who did not join the armed forces took part in various types of war activity. As soon as hostilities ended, enrollment jumped at once to more

than thirteen hundred, and another period of expansion, more rapid than before, was under way.

Since 1910 the question of the admission of women to the University had been agitated, some favoring the creation of a coordinate college while others favored provision for them on the grounds of the University. At first the movement, which was opposed by the vast majority of alumni, made little headway; but in 1920-21 it was provided that women might attend the graduate and professional departments of the University on the same terms as men. And, finally, in 1944, the General Assembly changed the name of Mary Washington College of Fredericksburg to "Mary Washington College of the University of Virginia." The President of the University is now Chancellor of that college, and the Board of Visitors of the University governs both institutions. Four years were allowed for the standards of the college, now devoted to the liberal arts, to be brought into line with those of the University.

Notable accomplishments of recent years have been the founding of the *Virginia Quarterly Review* in 1925, and the building of the Alderman Library in 1936-38. Professor James Southall Wilson fathered the *Review* and served as its first editor. The building of the Library was a matter of prime importance, for the Rotunda was no longer adequate to house the growing collections of books and manuscripts. The new building, constructed at a cost of nearly a million dollars, is both beautiful and commodious, and its increasingly fine collections of rare books and manuscripts attract scholars from all over the country.

During the session 1940-41, the faculty numbered 189 teachers of professorial rank, and the enrollment of the University reached its highest total—2,992 students, of whom 103 were women. These were divided among the departments as follows: College, 1,760; Graduate, 285; Education, 97; Engineering, 248; Law, 354; Medicine, 248. As of the following year, the University owned equipment, buildings, and grounds of an estimated value of \$10,394,698, held productive endowment funds to the amount of \$11,697,065, and received an appropriation from the Commonwealth of Virginia of \$562,272. Its expenses for the academic year were \$3,392,895.

The effects of the war to date (July, 1944) have reduced the student body to a total of 1,325, with a large part of that number being made up of the personnel of the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps and students of the V-12 program of the Navy. The Engineering and Medical Departments are given over largely to the training of Army and Navy personnel. A large number of the faculty are with the armed forces, and the Army conducts at the University a School of Military Government.

The sound of bugles is now heard over the lawn, but the spirit of Mr. Jefferson's University has not changed. The Navy men have adopted the honor code with all its implications, and the tradition of gentlemanly con-

duct is safe in their keeping. Time has mellowed the "academical village" and added to its unique beauty. The study where Professor McGuffey penned his prolific *Readers* is still in use; the charming garden within its serpentine walls which Professor Schele de Vere made a century ago is a source of enjoyment today; West Range now echoes to the marching of uniformed students, but it looks much the same as when moody Edgar Allan Poe brooded and gambled in No. 13, or when lanky young Woodrow Wilson conned his Blackstone in the quaint room a few doors beyond.

No early American save Mr. Jefferson would have dared to house a University in Roman temples, employ a majority of foreign professors, and exclude the clergy and all their theologies. His ideal of an education fitted to the needs of the individual student, with a maximum of self-determination, was equally radical in his day. The world has since caught up with the breadth of his views, but their depth is not so widely comprehended.

College and Community

BY ROSCOE E. PARKER

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It is frequently assumed that only those colleges, such as colleges of agriculture, which have definite service programs are much concerned about relating their work to anything beyond the limits of the campus. It is, of course, generally known that some schools and departments of business, education, engineering, home economics, and journalism are at times concerned about community affairs and that they undertake to render certain community services. It is even expected that they do this and that they utilize off-campus materials and situations in their regular programs of instruction. And it is common knowledge that many of them have performed excellent service. What is not generally recognized is that the colleges of arts and sciences are also interested in extending their work beyond the campus, and thereby keeping in touch with the world of action and of nature as well as with the world of books.

The Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education, a committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, last year directed this writer, who is Executive Secretary of the Committee, to undertake to find out what colleges in the Association are doing to carry college instruction beyond the campus and into the community. These colleges were invited to report such activities to the committee. A considerable number responded, and some of their reports of activities were published in several issues of the *Work Conference Bulletin* during the year. Since that time requests have been made that these reports of activities tending to carry college instruction beyond the campus into the community be presented in summary form. The reasons for these requests are two. Laymen and public school officials want to know what kind of services they can secure from the colleges; and the colleges realize the need for establishing mutually advantageous relationships with their communities.

This report is prepared in response to these requests. It deals with efforts of colleges to carry their educational programs into their communities. It does not deal with the work of the technical schools and colleges, nor with extension divisions, nor, except incidentally, with technical departments in the colleges. It simply presents, without identifying institutions, some typical ways in which colleges are pushing their educational efforts beyond the limits of their campuses. It presents these, for purposes of convenience, under departmental divisions generally employed in the colleges.

The South is rich in imitative architecture. This ranges from the replica

of the Parthenon in Nashville to the French or Spanish cottage to be found almost everywhere. The South is also rich in folk art, especially music and handicrafts. Many institutions utilize these native materials in their departments of fine arts and cooperate with community leaders in the preservation and development of local works of art and architecture. Colleges are participating in the study and preservation of distinctive buildings, popular ballads, folk songs, and handicrafts. Members of departments of fine arts, students and faculty alike, participate in the activities of local art associations, cooperate in securing art for local exhibitions, and encourage art students in public schools to exhibit their works in college art galleries. Some institutions have for years collected local versions of popular ballads, folk tales, and folk songs. Others have assisted in keeping alive local music festivals. Students of fine arts have frequently contributed posters to local chapters of the Red Cross, garden club, anti-tuberculosis campaign, and similar community organizations.

Three types of community service in economics are reported: administration, counseling, and conferences. Faculty, students, and laymen participate in all three, at least in some colleges. One college has assisted in establishing cost-accounting systems in municipalities and industries of the state. Many furnish counseling service to and cooperate in making economic surveys of one type or another of municipal and county governments. A still larger number hold annual economic conferences in which business and professional people of the community or state meet and discuss pertinent problems. These have generally met with enthusiastic responses from the people.

Departments or divisions of education, sometimes composed of all faculty members who have a part in the preparation of teachers and always involving the cooperation of other departments, carry instruction into the community in several ways. These institutions frequently offer the course in student teaching taken by senior students who plan to teach. In this course the student actually goes into the classroom as teacher and sometimes lives in the community for a period of time, thus coming in contact with the families and homes of the community. Many institutions also have training schools for groups ranging from nursery school in some institutions through high school in others in which the community is represented by students.

Through student organizations and college departments many institutions report that they work in connection with such community organizations as Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Girl Reserves, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and playground and recreational groups. In these organizations the students serve as counselors, assistants, and leaders in guiding various kinds of work and recreation. This cooperation with community agencies carries the work of colleges into the community; and, equally important, it brings problems

and materials from the community into the college and helps to give students valuable experience in working with people.

One woman's college conducts a coordinate program with a local hospital school of nursing and has an accredited school for the training of laboratory technologists.

Several institutions have begun programs of in-service education for teachers. The following is a brief resumé of one of these programs:

A staff member, who gives his full time to the project, spends at least one day every other week in each of six elementary school systems. The staff member spends at least a portion of the day visiting teachers in their classrooms to become acquainted with their problems. He meets with P-TA and other lay groups for discussion of problems of school improvement, and performs such other duties as he and the administrator may decide upon. In the evening a workshop is conducted in which the problems of the local elementary teachers and schools are taken up for systematic study. Library materials and other equipment are assembled according to local needs. Extension credit is granted to teachers participating in the workshop for the full school year. Through a series of bulletins the results of the work are made available to other school systems enrolling for the service. Reports on the solution of local problems are made available to cooperating school systems to be adapted for use in their own improvement programs.

From another college comes a report showing how it has greatly assisted the surrounding areas in their public schools, which have a greatly increased enrollment because of the increase in population resulting from greatly expanded war production and service installations. In order to assist the school authorities in carrying on their programs, the department of education at the college cooperates with the supervisory staff in the county in developing a laboratory program for those teachers who have been out of teaching for a number of years as well as for the regular teachers who need assistance in meeting significantly changed conditions created by an influx of children from other areas. More than a hundred teachers have participated in studying local conditions in the classroom and in the development of their instructional programs. The teachers have worked in four groups organized on the basis of problems which they have to meet in their classrooms. Provision has been made for teachers to receive credit for their work without expense because the school board carried part of the expense for the conference. The members from the department of education at the college are now visiting the county two days each month and spending the entire day in the classroom and in conferences with the teachers. In this work they are assisting the local supervisory staff in carrying out an instructional program which the county has adopted.

The English department of another college carries on, in cooperation with the State Department and other organizations, a state-wide English program. This is "a special and sustained effort to secure more effective teaching of English from the early grades through college. As a part of the program, high school English teachers, principals, and superintendents are furnished individual reports on the standing of their students. Each year these reports go out to every county in the state. Good teachers are being discovered and given the credit they so richly deserve. And these same good teachers . . . are being helped to write from their own tried and proved methods a teacher's manual for the whole state."

Programs of adult education instituted by some colleges have met with such response that many have come to regard adult educational programs as established features of the institutions. One college is serving oil and gas industries of the area in special consultations and in evening classes in geology, chemistry, and related subjects, and in oil and gas law. Another special group served by this college has been the personnel of a neighboring air field. Courses in college algebra, trigonometry, analytics, and calculus have been offered to this special group. Other courses have been offered to the people of the community who wish to earn credit toward degrees or to continue their formal education.

The university of one state is conducting citizenship forums in cooperation with civic organization of several population centers. Forums are held in each of these communities. "These forums have been arranged in the belief that there is desired an opportunity to meet regularly for a discussion of some of the questions connected with current and postwar problems. It is not the purpose to foster a particular viewpoint, but rather to provoke an objective and unprejudiced discussion of each topic so that those who participate may form opinions based on adequate information. Following the main speech there will be a discussion period in which audience participation will be welcome."

A church-related college reports that in addition to its regular evening classes in social science, literature, psychology, and education, several instructors have given courses known as "Standard Training Courses" in the churches of the community and other communities. In addition, topics of importance have been discussed by representatives of the college with the teachers of city schools.

Another method of carrying education beyond campus limits has been devised by a municipal university which has established a functioning department of cooperative education. Through this plan practical work supplements theoretical study, personalities are developed through the contacts made at work, and many students are enabled to remain in college who could not do so otherwise. Under this work-study plan, in addition to actually carrying out work and receiving a report on it from the employer,

the student is required to make a study of some problem of the firm or organization. This is in the form of a thesis report written under a specific department in the college and an oral report made to a faculty committee. This plan is a direct attempt to coordinate theory and practice. The following departments in the university have had a part in cooperative work: art, economics and commerce, home economics, physical education, secretarial science, and sociology.

Two colleges in one state report that their efforts to extend instruction beyond the campus have been directed primarily toward the development of rural leadership and improving the quality of rural living. The president of one college says in his letter to the members of the Conference on Rural Leadership held in 1943: "We feel that the greatest problem is that of developing rural leadership. Our aim for many years has been to assist communities in developing a consciousness of the particular problems of the community; from the community it is our aim to assist in finding the county problems, and then the state problems. After the problems have been found, they must be analyzed and a planned attack must be directed toward their solution. The purpose of this conference is primarily to contribute to all these ends." The president of the other college reports that the efforts of his institution have been directed toward the improvement of the quality of rural living. He says: "We are beginning to collect materials to set up more specific ways and means to do something on the problem through our students and through institutional services. We have already been instrumental in enlarging the Agricultural Coordinating Council in this county to include ministers and educators. We have also stimulated the organization of a regional council of six counties to coordinate the efforts of each county's council. The object is to coordinate the efforts of agricultural, educational, and religious groups in their individual efforts to improve the quality of living in rural areas."

Another college located in a bi-lingual community is carrying its work into the community in a different way. It is preparing for publication a series of booklets intended to aid teachers. These booklets are intended to improve instruction for non-English speaking children and adults in health and hygiene, art and music, foods and nutrition, and school-community relations. "The point of view maintained in the writing of the booklets derives from the recognition of the importance of providing opportunities and materials for the total development of the child and the adult." Students participate in educational activities developed near the college as a part of a school-community project. They assume leadership of rhythm bands for young children, music for pleasure for adults, games, a circulating library, a story hour, and various kinds of crafts.

Instruction in language and literature is carried into surrounding communities by many colleges and into the entire state by some institutions or

combinations of institutions sponsoring literary activities and contests. Dramatic programs have been instituted in many colleges through English and speech departments. Plays have been written in composition classes, contests have been conducted, often on a state-wide basis; and the plays winning approval have been produced by students for the benefit of the public. Much community interest has been created through such projects, and the creative talents of many students have been stimulated.

A course in English composition is offered by at least one university in which a major project has been the writing of a history of some local point of interest. "This project has had various values in University-community relationships. From the point of view of the students, it has given an interest in what has gone into the making of their community and of its institutions. It has developed in them an intelligent sense of values and appreciation—at times unexpected insight into shortsighted or selfish policies in the past, even contact with 'It can't be told yet' situations. The project, limited as it is in availability in its present state, has interested and served the community. The papers have been used by individuals and organizations for needed historical information. It may be added that when the history of any organization is written, a copy is provided for the organization. The students collect the information by interviewing individuals and by using written materials that individuals or organizations have, as well as by consulting available public records. These contacts have served to interest those who have helped in what the University is doing, and in turn, it has given them the feeling that the University is not existing in an academic vacuum, but is actively concerned with the community's past, present and future."

At one college "the department of modern languages gives evening classes free of charge to any members of the community who are interested in learning Spanish, French, German, Portuguese, Dutch, or Japanese."

At another college, students of journalism prepare publicity articles for newspapers throughout the state and also conduct a Story-of-the-Month Contest in high schools of the state.

A political science department, "seeks, whenever feasible, to bring its students into contact with actual governmental problems and activities . . . The department has established close relationships with the city." The head of the department "is a member of the Civil Service Board which recruits and selects employees for city departments. It has been possible to familiarize students with the work and problems of personnel administration through this activity." Another committee of the city on which the department has been represented is the "Committee on Classification and Salary Standardization." Through this committee most of the city service positions have been classified and the committee is now working on the standardization of salaries. Graduate and undergraduate students have

been used in this work and through it have had actual contact with problems of public administration. Through serving as local agent for the state department of personnel, the students have had opportunity to come in contact with the workings of this State department. Research work is being done on topics which tend to be local in nature, such as "Personnel Problems," "Providing Municipal Services Outside Corporate Limits," "Election Law and Administration in the State," "Effects of T.V.A. Program on State and Local Government," "Retirement Systems for State and Local Employees," and "Utility Law." This department maintains a Governmental Reference Service to serve public officials, publishes a bi-monthly bulletin of news of special interest to citizens and government officials, and sponsors an annual "Institute of Local Government." In this institute vital problems of county, municipal, and state government receive consideration under the leadership of men proficient in governmental problems.

Several coordinators report that their psychology departments take students into local and state institutions to see how the institutions actually function and to study their problems, purposes, and administration. Not only are these various institutions used as field training centers for the students, but often the officials of the institutions come to the colleges for assistance and consultation concerning certain problems and cases.

Other efforts to carry instruction beyond the campus utilize the total resources of the institution. Through the radio, lectures, and concerts the influence of the college extends throughout the community. A few institutions own radio stations. Others utilize local facilities. One institution broadcasts at least one thirty-minute program daily from its own studio. These programs reach into practically every department of the institution and, therefore, at one time or another interest almost everyone in the community. In the English department of one college, for example, sixteen plays were written for the radio and produced by the students of the speech department over a local station. "These fifteen-minute plays have led several girls into regular radio work, both from the angle of writing and from the speech side."

Several institutions have annual programs of lectures and concerts which are open, without charge, or at a nominal charge, to the public; and one college gives a "lecture series to ministers of surrounding communities by professors of history, psychology, economics, biology, etc., on new developments in those fields which in order to widen and bring up to date ministerial understanding of modern attitudes of science, etc." This college also cooperates with surrounding communities by furnishing music for various programs and pageants presented.

In the sciences also, instruction is carried beyond the campus in a great many different ways. Local and regional materials, such as plants, flowers, crops, minerals, and industries, constitute the basic material for many cours-

es. Several institutions report that their courses in chemistry are closely related to the chemical industries in their particular localities or states. Field trips are made regularly to certain chemical industrial plants, and the actual application in the plants of the different phases of their class work is pointed out to the students.

The department of biology at several institutions reaches into the community through its participation in and work with natural history societies and similar organizations.

One college reports its "Program of Education in Fishery Biology and Conservation" conducted jointly by the State fisheries laboratory and the college. This program aims to assist the schools and communities in fishing instruction, to train personnel for this work, to provide the needed community leadership, and to help develop a long range program of conservation of the commercial fisheries. The content of the program, initiated by the fisheries laboratory and developed mainly through the community schools, consists of one or a combination of two or more of the following steps, depending on local needs and facilities:

1. Providing instruction in biology and general science classes by making fullest possible use of living marine organisms and seafood subjects, such as the nutritional value of seafoods or the economic value of seafoods to the community, the state, and the nation;

2. Providing instruction, through organized field study by student groups, in the following subjects: local shore animals, local fish, methods of handling oysters and crabs, etc. (In this work men in local fishery industries are usually willing to assist in every way);

3. Organizing science groups, providing an opportunity for guidance while stimulating interest in practical fishery projects that have direct bearing on the particular community. (The cooperation of the local fishery inspectors of the Commission of Fisheries and other well-informed persons may assist the group in a variety of ways);

4. Providing vocational work for adults of each community who are directly or indirectly interested in fishery problems and their bearing on community welfare. (Expression of community interest and needs will largely determine the season's program).

The program is conducted by providing: (1) a marine biologist to take a mobile fishery educational exhibit to the schools and community groups, thus stimulating interest of the school authorities in participating in the program; (2) a laboratory teaching unit with appropriate guides for each school; (3) pamphlets and moving pictures for the teachers's use; (4) special summer courses of instruction in fishery biology and conservation for high school teachers; and (5) adult classes for communities desiring vocational

work in fishery problems. The program aims to utilize, in so far as possible, present facilities and personnel in each fishing community.

Other biology departments carry instruction into the community by:

1. Giving lectures to schools, garden clubs, boy scouts, girl scouts, churches, and other organizations;
2. Preparing and distributing mimeographed keys to local wild plants and animals and giving information concerning their habits, poisonous or non-poisonous characteristics, etc.;
3. Leading hikes and contributing information on nature;
4. Doing field work on tree diseases, feeding of birds, etc.;
5. Holding annual exhibits of biological experiments, class work, and museum material;
6. Holding an annual "Symposium on Medical Professions" to which local doctors, nurses, and certain high school students are invited;
7. Utilizing in laboratory work specimens of milk from local dairies, plants close at hand, etc.

At least two departments of archeology and anthropology have made hundreds of excavations in recent years and have done rather notable work in pre-Indian cultures. The results of these investigations and the materials excavated have been collected in museums and form the basis for instruction that goes on in the classroom and extends into the communities through exhibitions as well as explorations.

Almost universally students in departments of sociology are brought in contact with the various social agencies of the community, and members of these departments serve on boards of social welfare. Statistical and descriptive data from local and state agencies and institutions are used extensively. In advanced courses, such as juvenile delinquency, criminology, field observation, and social case work, the students go into the agencies and institutions and work under the supervision of professional social workers, often serving as assistants in this work.

Many colleges and universities have instituted special courses to aid the war effort, such as home nursing, first aid, home mechanics, accounting, mechanical drawing, map-reading, typing, and recreational leadership. Some institutions opened these classes to anyone in the community who wanted to take the courses. Other courses "directly related to the war effort have been reemphasized and refocused" in order to be of more immediate use in the present crisis. Much work has been done in cooperation with the Red Cross and other community agencies. There can be little doubt that many of these college-community types of cooperation will become normal activities when peace comes again.

This summary is based upon reports from thirty-odd institutions. It

makes no claim to completeness, but it is probably a representative sampling. It reveals a variety of efforts to make instruction meaningful and to render service to the communities adjacent to the institutions reporting and frequently to an entire state. It will be noted that some of the methods reported are of long standing in certain institutions. Others are new and experimental. Taken together they indicate that our institutions of higher education are seriously interested in improving their educational programs both on and off their campuses. They also indicate a growing realization that colleges, schools, and citizens have much to gain through cooperative effort—that man, as Marcus Aurelius has well said, is “made for cooperation.”

The more college instruction can be carried “beyond the campus into the community” the more interesting it will become to the student and the more effective it will become in the life of the individual and of society. Equally as important is the fact that instructional programs which extend beyond campus borders create a closer relationship between institutions, both their faculties and their students, and the people of the community and state than has heretofore existed. Through this closer relationship there develops an interest in cooperative educational work and a compelling sense of the responsibility of colleges, schools, and citizens alike for the development of educational programs and procedures which vitalize the individual and society.

For these reasons, it seems to many people, including the writer, worthwhile calling attention to efforts which colleges are making to develop instructional programs to reach into the life of the community, sometimes revitalizing both the community and the college. It seems only fair and just, moreover, for all of us to realize that colleges, like Milton’s books, “are not absolutely dead things, but do contain a potency of life in them to be as active as that soul was whose progeny they are: nay, they do preserve as in a vial the purest efficacy and extraction of that living intellect that bred them.”

Improving Education for Social-Civic Competence in the Southern States¹

BY MARY L. ANDERSON, ROBERT E. CURETON, NEWELL D. EASON,
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A STATEMENT OF PHILOSOPHY

The forces of right seem on the threshold of victory in one theatre of conflict, and men are turning their attention with increasing frequency to the reconstruction of the postwar world and the creation of greater safeguards for democracy. It is therefore particularly fitting that professional educators should consider their tasks for the present and the future. Mindful of this obligation, a group of teachers and administrators gathered at Stanford University, reaffirmed our belief in democracy as a mechanism and a way of life and asserted those principles which shall govern our respective relations as teachers and administrators in Southern schools.

The Nature of Democracy

We believe:

- A. That democracy is a form of Christian social justice based upon a concept of general welfare that actively embraces all the people.
- B. That the American constitutional system of government is a most effective means for the achievement of democratic goals.
- C. That democracy cannot exist where freedom is dead nor can real freedom exist where democracy is not, and we recognize this war as a struggle to preserve our democratic way of life.
- D. That the inherent strength of democracy is greater than the combined strength of all the forces that can be brought against it; but we recognize those of our own short-comings which tend to weaken us.
- E. That democracy is more than the political expression of the majority;

¹ This article presents three of ten chapters, abstracts of others, and the summary of a statement prepared cooperatively by a group of ten fellowship students from Southern schools. The group was sponsored by the General Education Board and chosen from the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes. These persons were selected to work with the staff of the Stanford University Social Education Investigation in the 1943 Summer Workshop, six of them having visited during the preceding spring in the schools participating in the Investigation. The purpose of the experience was to provide for teachers from Southern schools and colleges to discover and apply to education in the South whatever seemed valuable from the Stanford Investigation directed by Dean Grayson Kefauver and Dr. I. James Quillen. The full statement in mimeographed form can be secured by request, while copies last, from W. A. Robinson, Director, Secondary School Study, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia.

it is also an expression of a belief in the dignity of man and the definition of a moral creed.

The Relation of the School to the Democratic Way

We believe:

- A. That the over-all purpose of education is the training and development of citizens capable of sustaining the democratic ideal as a way of life.
- B. That the crisis in American democracy stems from failure to make universal application of the democratic ideal in human relationships.
- C. That the schools must assume an increasingly larger share of the responsibility for the effectiveness of our democratic system.
- D. That the schools must help pupils develop those loyalties, knowledges, and disciplines which are distinguishing features of an effective citizen.

The Role of Education in the South

We believe:

- A. That the problems of our region can best be solved through the cooperative efforts of all groups working together.
- B. That the problems of our region demand for their solution the discovery, development, and full use of our own potentialities.
- C. That in the solution of our problems the schools have a major responsibility and should undertake to meet that obligation immediately.

The Tasks of the Southern Schools

We believe:

- A. That the schools of the South should attempt to meet their obligation to the people of the region and to the nation through
 1. The creation of school situations in which boys and girls can learn by experience the true meaning of democracy;
 2. The study of community problems and social action aimed toward the improvement of community living;
 3. The development of curricula based on pupil and community needs, not ignoring pupil interests, but making a real attempt to discover and use the on-going interest of pupils;
 4. The study and use of techniques for implementing democracy;
 5. Constant appraisal of teaching and learning in terms of the values sought.

AREAS OF SOCIAL NEEDS IN THE SOUTHERN REGION

In the Southern region, there are more youth from fifteen to nineteen years of age than there are in any other section of the United States. These millions of youths are the South's most neglected resource. Many go through

life undeveloped, untrained, never fully realizing their abilities and quite "oblivious to the wide reaches of opportunity." The type of educational program which will administer to the needs of these youth must be one related to the social and economic problems with which the Southern community is faced.

Economically, the majority of Southern people are occupying a position which could barely class them above a poverty level of existence. The average per capita wealth of the South is \$1,785 as compared with \$3,609 for the nation, and all of the twelve states having less than \$2,000 per capita wealth are in the South.* To say that the condition is somewhat better when only the white population is considered creates a false security on the part of the region based (1) on false assumptions of the bases of a region's economic and social status, and (2) on an unsocial consideration of regional problems. Therefore, to understand the Southern school and the function of the educational process, we must explore the many problems that economic forces have created for Southern youth.

The normal difficulties of growing up in the South are complicated by many unfavorable economic and social problems. Of these problem areas, seven are critical in the life of Southern youth and require attention in the classroom as well as in the community programs of the schools. These problems affect the health, civic competency, occupations, leisure, inter-ethnic relations, family life, and consumer efficiency of the people of the region.

Health

The problem of maintaining the individual in normal function, free from disease and defect, is a challenge to the school. Partial samplings from the field of health and diet will indicate how vitally important problems of health are to the South. Rickets, tuberculosis, syphilis, pellagra, malaria, and vitamin starvation are the human costs to the South of its economic deprivations. Not only do these diseases take their toll in death but also in the lowering of vitality "that has too often been laid to willful laziness and inefficiency."

Ina Corinne Brown states the health problem in the South when she says, "The relatively fewer doctors and nurses, the lack of hospital facilities, the low per capita expenditure for dental and medical care, and the generally

* It is well to remember, however, that the South had to start in 1865 with its economy destroyed, so that in three-quarters of a century its climb even to the \$1,785 average represents quite an achievement. Particularly is this achievement remarkable in the case of the Negro citizens, practically all of whom started as absolute illiterates and paupers in 1865. It is also well to remember that the fundamental good-will and cooperation of white and Negro citizens—throughout the seventy-five years just passed, without any real help from professional baiters of the South—achieved the per capita wealth we now have. Even now, the South has to fight for relief from discriminatory freight rates that tend to drain its wealth into the centers of population located elsewhere. The per capita wealth stated for the nation as a whole includes corporate wealth located in industrial centers built in part on discriminatory legislation.—EDITOR.

low level of living of many of the people of the poorest areas of the South make the health problems of the region acute, both in cities and rural areas."²

Every child has the right to learn how to live happily in his own community. There are too many young people deprived of happy associations in their community because of illness resulting from malnutrition, unclean surroundings, and lack of knowledge of personal, social, and sex hygiene. The assumption here is that the school should provide among its services adequate attention to the health interests of students, and to the half-starved, poverty-stricken environment in which they live.

Civic Competence

The lack of civic competence in our youth reflects the most critical of all Southern social problems. The best educated citizens tend to withdraw from government in favor of individuals who are often more interested in furthering their own interests than in the general welfare. It is a serious indictment of our educational methods when the well-educated citizens are not more active in political leadership. This is perhaps truer of the South than any other section of the country. Dr. Odum sums the problem up well:

"In the political culture of the South inheres the limitations of educational support, of law enforcement, of economic reconstruction, of race relations, of traditional one-party control, of demagogic exploitation of the poor people—in fine, the politics of the recent past and present stands as a closed door to any reasonably full opportunity for the Southern people and their institutions. The conclusion is supported by the statistics of state politics and state leaders, of state legislators and appropriations, of elections and campaigns, and of legislation and leadership in high places and low. It is reflected in jails and almshouses, in child labor and the courts, in old age and unemployment security, in organization for public welfare, public health and public education."³

In the development of civic competence it is necessary that our schools create a desire in the masses of people to share in making decisions for America. Education must be directed to correct one of the major deficiencies of our present democratic citizenship, namely, the unwillingness, if not actual inability, of our Southern people to participate in government functions.

Growing convictions on the part of the schools and colleges of the South that real learning can only be the product of experience, will result in providing, as fully as possible, opportunities for pupil participation in the re-

² Brown, Ina Corinne, *Socio-Economic Approach to Education Problems*, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1942.

³ Odum, H. W., *Southern Regions*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1936, p. 525.

sponsibilities of the school life. Pupils in the elementary and high schools will learn through actual participation in the demands for planning and assuming cooperative and individual responsibility made by the total life of the school, how a community attacks its problems and makes its decisions. In colleges, prospective teachers in anticipation of their teaching tasks in the common schools will have fuller and more exacting participation in the decisions regarding the life in the college community.

Occupations

The occupational problem in the South is complicated by a combination of economic forces. The effects of economic handicaps in education, widespread unemployment, low paid and unstable employment, combine to form a theme which runs through nearly all the problems of Southern youth. On farm and in cities these young people face an occupational future that is discouraging; not enough jobs for all the farmers' children; not enough jobs for all of the children of wage earners; not enough awareness of the means by which new occupational possibilities are created; not enough occupational training to meet the employers' minimal educational requirements.

More than three-quarters of the South's young people who are working or looking for work are in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations, including servants and farm workers. Wages and income for them rank from 30-50 per cent below the national level: wages too low to live on or to allow marriage with a health and decency standard result from the jobs held by the majority of employed young people.

To create an awareness of this situation by making these problems the subject of study in the schools and colleges, is the crucial responsibility of education and educators of the South. More, probably, than in any other section of the nation, schools and colleges in the South must not by any emphasis upon academic abstractions tend to create deliberately or unwittingly a disregard for the social importance of work and of workers. Southern educators must ultimately accept the responsibility for whatever positions on work and workers are taken by those who have been taught in Southern schools.

Leisure

The South, with its large youth population, has more than superficial interest in planning for leisure and recreation. Nevertheless, increasing recognition of the need for leisure time enrichment of its people is lagging behind the country as a whole. The Southeast has but two of the twenty-one national parks with scarcely more than 2 per cent of the over 8,000,000 acres. "Of the national forests of 185,000,000 acres in twenty-six states, the Southeast has less than 4,000,000 in nine states. . . . Of the state parks and forests, almost 600, covering more than 4,250,000 acres, the Southeast

as yet records no more than a score and little more than 20,000 acres. Of municipal parks and playgrounds, the Southeast, compared to cities of 5,000 population and over, at least half of which have one or more, recorded less than two score, with an aggregate acreage of scarcely more than 6,000." ⁴ However, the past few years have seen the South add a number of national parks.

There needs to be wise and adequate expansion of recreational and leisure-time facilities for childhood and adulthood in urban and rural areas of the South. There is an overabundance of cheap, commercial amusements of the passive spectator type.

The youthful need for adventure and excitement with increasing leisure must be guided in ways that will furnish wholesome, active outlets for all people in terms of ever widening range of interests.

Inter-ethnic Relations

Inter-ethnic relations in the South have taken the form of a caste system. Out of this caste system has emerged a bi-racial organization of separate institutions. These separate institutions have meant impoverished institutions for both races.* Whatever arguments may be made for or against the desirability of separateness, if it results in the social and economic depression of a part of the population of the region through the imposition of restrictions and discriminations, to that extent is the South prevented from making the economic and social progress that it should make.

Basic Christian and democratic principles are denied and become inactive in Southern living unless both whites and Negroes cooperate in a common effort to aid the South assume her proper place in the cultural life of the country. There have been significant efforts at cooperation between upper-class whites and upper-class Negroes, as exemplified in the Commission on Interracial Cooperation. The situation toward which we must strive is widespread belief in the principle of inter-group cooperation as the only Christian and democratic means of bringing improved social conditions to all groups and to all classes within these groups.

⁴ Odum, H. W., *Southern Regions*, p. 311.

* In other words, within the seventy-five years since Appomattox the Southern white man in spite of his own poverty—while the Negro was advancing from economic and educational zero—has provided schools not only for his own children but for those of his Negro neighbors also. More important still, he is rapidly and steadily cooperating with his Negro neighbor to erase differentials in the quality of schools provided. He is undoubtedly firm in his resolution to keep his separate schools and separate social organization, but he is also determined that the Negro shall make similar progress—a fact which professional baiters regret very much to acknowledge. It should be pointed out to Southern children—white and Negro—that the achievement of their fathers in building and maintaining a higher and higher level of bi-racial schools is all the more creditable because the South—having except in Louisiana relatively few Catholics, who in Northern states maintain large numbers of parochial schools free of cost to the taxpayer—has undertaken to provide tax-supported schools for all its children.—EDITOR.

Family Life

Americans have always stressed the family as the foundation of the nation. The South is the home of the largest families. These large families amid a poverty stricken environment suggest child labor, frequent absence from school, inadequate care and attention of the children, lack of home hygiene, and inadequate educational facilities. These inadequacies, growing partly out of the size of the families, affect the health, training, and personalities of children growing up in the South.

The internal life of the Southern family reflects the poverty of the section. Family separation is frequent. Divorce is rare because it is costly. Among both Negroes and poor whites re-marriage takes place without divorce because mutual agreement rules out the necessity for legal sanction. The rate of home and farm ownership for the masses is low, as is the standard of living. Child mortality is high with homes frequently broken by death. In the tenant farmer and share cropper family can be seen children unhappy with faces stripped, denuded, and empty.

Since the welfare of the nation depends upon the strength of family life and the active cooperation and loyalty of its members, it is essential that all of the forces of society unite in protecting family life and the stability of the home. "The interests that center about family life deserve the same attention that education attempts to give to other major human values."

Consumer Efficiency

The consumer problem consists in the ability of the consumer to translate the meager income of the Southern wage earner into maximum satisfaction to be derived from his consumption goods. The large variety of goods available as compared to the limitation of the money income complicates the consumer's problem. Frequently the consumer does not know how to adapt his wants to his income and thus secure the satisfaction of the most important wants. Too often he does not know how to budget his income. He lacks knowledge of the things that he buys. The consumer too often buys according to habit and custom of the South rather than according to a minimum standard of excellence.

No education can be vital and meaningful that does not consider the problems of the community which it professes to serve. Schools, therefore, must study the problems and tensions of their communities in order to understand them and to do something about them. It is the responsibility of the schools of the South to provide the children of the region with experiences in dealing with problem situations in their environment and with the understandings, attitudes, values, and skills necessary to contribute to the solution of Southern problems.

OBJECTIVES ⁵

The outstanding needs of the South suggest that the child growing up in this area under present conditions should have greater opportunities to become an effective, well-adjusted citizen. Some objectives might be suggested, therefore, which may serve as a starting point in a program that will more adequately meet the needs of the pupils.

An individual's behavior at any time is conditioned and directed by his knowledge of the situation in which he finds himself, the way he feels about it, and his training in handling the separate elements that have made up the situation. The individual best handles a situation if he is able to appraise the problem, to see the need for action, to desire to act. He needs some skills and techniques at his command which will enable him to solve the problem at hand.

The adolescent himself is a problem as he stands in the transitional stage between childhood and adulthood. His life is a constant striving to adjust his body and mind to the uneven growth and development which he is undergoing. Now, more than at any other time, he needs security—security of status with his social peers. Emotions determine most of his reactions: what he will fight for today he will scorn tomorrow. He is acutely conscious of how people react to him, hence he needs the experiences which give him opportunity to gain recognition and approval through successful achievement. He needs the self-assurance that follows others' acceptance of him. He wants to establish himself as a person in his own right, often impatiently breaking home and family ties and restrictions in order to assert his newly-felt independence. The adolescent thinks and feels strongly; he questions hitherto accepted beliefs and practices; he analyzes situations which previously had presented no problems. During this period of "storm and stress," the individual is maturing rapidly, both physically and mentally. He is becoming the grown-up individual who very soon will take over adult functions and must be able to carry these on with satisfaction. He will tend to perpetuate the environment in which he has learned best to express himself. If the school environment has provided experiences which have caused him to develop certain democratic behavioral responses, then it is this democratic atmosphere that he will wish to carry over into everyday living. The democratic spirit will be developed along with a certain amount of democratic competence.

In order to help the Southern youth, Negro and white, to meet the needs of his environment, the following list of objectives may suggest how he may become a socially sensitive and socially competent individual. These objectives, expressed behaviorally, describe this adolescent youth in terms of

⁵ The original report contains a detailed analysis of objectives relevant to the seven problem areas mentioned previously.

knowledges and understandings, dispositions to action, and abilities and skills—all of which he uses in solving his problems.

As a background of general skills and abilities which are basic to problem-solving in any phase of living, these competencies in the use of certain techniques are suggested. The pupil trains and uses all his powers of observation; he reads, writes, and speaks with ease, clarity, and intelligence; he uses study habits which are effective, including skills in locating and using a variety of source materials; he uses the scientific method in solving problems and making decisions—that is, he thinks critically through adequate and valid evidence, he summarizes information, he forms tentative conclusions which he tests while keeping his mind open for new and pertinent evidence, and he translates his generalizations into principles upon which he acts.

CURRICULUM

Southern administrators and teachers are anxious to see the secondary schools of the South become more effective in meeting the needs of boys and girls. They understand there are some valid criticisms of the present program of studies and are taking steps to change the curriculum. The courses of study are being examined, methods of teaching analyzed, and administrative practices modified to make the school more functional in the lives of students.

How can the schools discover and meet the needs of youth? Schools in the South are building school programs designed to meet the needs of students in their individual communities. Various schools have approached this problem differently; all subject-matter areas have a contribution to make toward meeting these needs. If a matter of concern is the improvement of health in the community, teachers need to plan together, taking into consideration the unique contributions of the subject-matter areas. The problem for work, then, might be worded "How can our community's health be improved and safeguarded?"

The social sciences might be concerned with such studies as:

1. What health facilities does the community now afford?
2. What improvements are immediately possible?
3. What improvements are possible over a longer period of time?
4. How does illness affect income and standards of living?
5. What practices exist in the community now for preventing and curing diseases?

Homemaking might be concerned with such studies as:

1. The planning of well-balanced, economic menus.
2. Experiences in the care and preservation of meats, fruit and vegetables.

3. Planning for the utilization of space and equipment in the home for maximum use to the family.
4. The development of sound food habits.
5. Home nursing.

Science might be concerned with such studies as:

1. Identification of common diseases in the community and their sources.
2. Analyzing patent medicines in common use in the community.
3. Testing water supply.
4. Providing for adequate sewage disposal.

English might be concerned with such studies as:

1. The assembling of pertinent materials on health.
2. Dramatizations of community health programs.
3. Organizing public speaking bureaus for disseminating information in the school and in the community.
4. Keeping adequate records (such as a diary, progress reports, etc.) of the work on the entire school project.
5. Reporting the work being done to the school and community papers.

Mathematics might be concerned with such studies as:

1. Costs of various community improvements.
2. Budgeting of incomes.
3. Relation of cost of improvements to taxes.
4. Cost of and kinds of adequate insurance—life, accident, health.

Physical Education might be concerned with such studies as:

1. Learning and utilizing corrective posture exercises.
2. Development of skills in recreational games, including both large and small group games.
3. How to determine individual weight standards and work toward them.
4. Cleanliness and care of the body.

Thus all school subjects can contribute to building effectiveness in the solution of common problems.

Another approach to curriculum revision in social education is to discover the needs of each student and then to have the total school program flexible and rich enough to meet those needs. With a large number of Southern youth high school education is terminal. They leave high school to marry and become citizens of the community. With this in mind some schools have planned directly with students a program of work which meets their

present and future needs. Subject-matter areas are utilized as resources in meeting needs and developing desirable behavior for the solution of future problems. Students may not pursue a particular course for a full semester; they do not feel the pressure of working for grades as ends in themselves; and they may select courses above or below their own grade level if such courses better meet their needs. Learning becomes more meaningful and effective because students have a feeling of need for the material studied and strive to work up to their maximum capacities. Guidance becomes a necessary and continuous element in the program.

The social studies teacher operating within the traditionally defined subject-matter organizational pattern can do much to promote the objectives outlined elsewhere in this statement. This can be done through a shift in emphasis. The teacher who feels that the primary aim of education is the training of capable citizens will not find the shift in emphasis too difficult. There are several organizational patterns which the teacher might use to achieve the needed shift in emphasis. In none of these will she need to sacrifice her subject matter.

APPROACHES AND TECHNIQUES

The failure of our schools to prepare students adequately to meet socio-economic changes has created increasing concerns about the techniques of teaching in our schools and colleges. The idea that all a teacher needs is enthusiasm and knowledge of the subject matter fails to prepare students to live effectively in a changing world. The teacher who slavishly follows a text-book and who gives little thought to outcomes, except the ability of students to repeat or reproduce the material in the books, does not help students develop the behaviors necessary for living effectively in a democratic society.

Many teachers, therefore, are questioning their procedures and approaches and are seeking to improve instruction in both secondary schools and colleges. They desire better technique and are more and more concerned in developing patterns of behaviors in youth which will enable them to play an intelligent role in our democratic life. They believe that students should be able to formulate and execute plans which will improve personal and social living in the community.

Thus, many schools in the South, as well as elsewhere, are concerned with a more functional approach to education. One reason for this is the increased complexity of the school population. No longer can schools gear their curriculum and teaching to the needs of the elite and disregard the needs of the masses who are crowding present day classrooms. A second reason for a shift in educational emphasis grows out of a better understanding of child growth and development and a changed concept of learning and motivation. In order that schools may help boys and girls develop the

understandings, skills, and values needed for social competence and in order that they may help them learn to solve successfully problems in everyday life related to health, inter-ethnic relations, family life, occupation, leisure, consumer efficiency, and civic competence, curriculum content and classroom procedure need to be appraised in the light of this increased knowledge of student needs. Furthermore the approach used in teaching the social studies should be the one which most facilitates child growth and is in greatest agreement with the new concepts of learning and motivation.

The three approaches most frequently used by social studies teachers are the chronological, the topical, and the problems approach.⁶ While these are not mutually exclusive, each has decided characteristics which distinguish it from the other two. The chronological approach, the one most widely used in history classes, differs from the topical and problems approaches in that it treats a culture or epoch in all its relationships. It describes a culture genetically in time and place and follows the development of human progress from some remote origin down to the present. In the main, it describes what has happened. It provides a perspective by which to view the development of civilization but gives little attention to contemporary life.

The topical approach permits the study of a phase of the culture, an issue, an institution, or a situation. With this approach it is possible to treat an issue or topic genetically, to see it in its entirety, and to see cause and affect relationships. However, with the topical approach the student usually feels no tension or perplexity, he is not required to decide upon a course of action, or to act in accordance with his decision. He is concerned primarily with gathering and interpreting information about the topic being studied which may or may not be a contemporary one.

The problems approach has an advantage in attacking present day problems. There are two essential characteristics of a problem; first, a tension which can be released only through the solution of the problem; and second, a choice of action from among two or more possible solutions. Problem analysis is valuable in that it gives the students techniques which they can carry into adult life when in the democratic process they will be called upon to make decisions on many large issues.

LEADERSHIP IN ADMINISTRATION

The school as a participating agency in the development of a democratic community life is gaining wide acceptance in the South. The increasing participation of the school in community living is dependent upon its understanding of the community and a continuous appraisal of its function in the community culture. Much of the responsibility for leading the school staff,

⁶ See original article for fuller description.

parents, and young people in providing an educational program which meets the needs of the community rests with the administrator.

Some attributes of an administrator which encourage the school to make a significant contribution to community life are:

1. A clear philosophy of education.
2. The ability to stimulate the staff to improve the school program.
3. A knowledge of the community of which the school is a part.
4. The ability to establish friendly relationships with the staff and with the community.

The interrelation of these attributes tend to mold the contributions which the school can make to its community.

The effectiveness of the school in fulfilling its responsibility of leadership in the community is affected by the vision of its administrator. The administrator's philosophy must embrace long-term objectives for the school in its community setting. For this philosophy to be useful in developing the school in the community, it must:

1. Be practical for the school and community in which it operates.
2. Be interpreted in understandable and non-technical language.
3. Be evident in the practices of the school.
4. Provide for the participation of the staff, students, and adults in the community in making decisions which affect them.

Cooperative planning and cooperatively arriving at decisions by the group affected by the decisions is fundamental to democracy. The school administrator in a democracy leads his staff in planning the school program rather than making the plans himself and passing them out to the teachers. The administrator must stimulate teachers to participate in the determination of school policy and in planning the work of the school itself. To stimulate such planning, the administrator should:

1. Believe that group planning is a means of improving the school's practices.
2. Provide time within the school day for cooperative planning.
3. Aid each teacher in finding a satisfying place in the school program.
4. Provide materials for use by teachers.
5. Know available resources which would be useful to teachers, both material and human sources, and keep the teachers informed of these.

Teachers are anxious to improve their work with boys and girls; the administrator can do much to facilitate this improvement by providing opportunities for the teachers to participate in determining the needs of the children they teach and in planning the school program to meet these needs.

In leading the school staff in planning the school program, the adminis-

trator must know the community of which the school is a part. It is the administrator's responsibility to utilize the resources of the community in improving the school. In order that the school participate effectively in the community, it is the responsibility of the administrator to:

1. Create favorable public opinion toward the school.
2. Understand the pressures existing in the community which affect community life.
3. Know the accepted social patterns of the community.
4. Understand the fears and insecurities in the community.
5. Provide opportunity for student participation in community projects.

The relationship of the administrator and the teachers is an important factor in the development of the school program. If the school program is to receive maximum benefit from the staff's working together, the administrator and the teachers must feel secure in their positions and feel that the work which they are doing is valuable. The administrator will improve the "oneness" of the staff if he:

1. Establishes understanding, friendly relationships with the teachers.
2. Is aware of the purposes the teachers hold in the work they do.
3. Understands the individual competencies and differences of the teachers on the staff.
4. Sincerely recognizes accomplishments of teachers.
5. Makes criticisms objectively and makes concrete suggestions for improvement.
6. Respects professional confidences.

EVALUATION

Determining the worth of the educational activities in which pupils engage is a problem which merits careful consideration, if those experiences are to make the maximum contribution to the development of students in effective, democratic citizenship. Therefore an understanding of the place, function, and scope of evaluation in the total educational program becomes essential if satisfactory progress of the individual is to be assured.

Evaluation is the process of securing valid evidences of pupil progress in the development of those objectives of education which are considered worthwhile and reasonable of attainment for him.

This process of appraising the development of an individual serves to (1) determine the nature and extent of changes in the pupil's behavior; (2) provide a basis for the diagnosis of pupil strengths and weaknesses; (3) motivate pupil learning, particularly with reference to those needs revealed in the diagnosis; (4) reveal to the teacher the extent to which the selection and organization of curriculum experiences, teaching procedures, and the total learning situations are contributing effectively to the realization of those ob-

jectives which the school is seeking to achieve; (5) inform pupils and their parents of pupil progress; and (6) establish the basis for satisfactory relations between the schools and the public.

If these purposes are to be realized, some basic considerations must be kept in mind in any attempt to build valid and reliable techniques of appraisal. The program of evaluation should be concerned with the appraisal of growth with reference to all of the significant objectives of education. When only one objective is stressed while others are neglected, there results a lack of proper balance in the learning experiences. This has no doubt accounted for the practice of emphasizing the mastery of facts or information without proper regard for other significant outcomes toward which groups should be working. An effective means of guarding against such a weakness in the program can be found in a clear formulation of the objectives toward which one is to work. This should not be in vague general statements, but in such specific and definite terms that they may give direction to the work. Too often objectives have been stated in general terms which frequently have little meaning for teacher or pupil. These general terms should be broken down and defined behaviorally so that evidences of growth with reference to them can be secured. For example, growth in cooperation is frequently set up as an objective. This should be analyzed to reveal the types of behavior manifested by one who is considered cooperative. Such an analysis might be stated as follows: One who is cooperative carries willingly his share of group responsibility; helps others who have difficulty; meets his obligations punctually and to the best of his ability; permits and encourages others to participate equally; welcomes and respects the opinions of others even though they are different from his own. When each of the objectives is broken down in such terms, the behaviors can be observed and definite evidences of them can be more effectively collected.

This makes it possible to integrate more effectively the teaching and evaluation aspect of the program, for when clearly stated objectives are set up and continuous appraisals of behavior are made in terms of these objectives, the teacher can constantly check the program of learning so that the pupils have experiences in the desired behaviors. This relationship of teaching and evaluation reveals, too, that evaluation is not a process to be employed at the end of a unit or period of time, but should begin when the teaching begins and continue throughout the period of learning.

When the objectives are defined through the cooperative activity of pupils and teachers, and stated in language intelligible to the pupil, the pupils will not only understand what they are working for but can cooperate in appraising the extent to which they are achieving their goals. Obviously, such a comprehensive program of evaluation cannot be limited to the use of paper and pencil tests, for while these constitute significant techniques of appraisal, many important objectives of education such as cooperation,

or self-direction, etc. cannot be adequately evaluated with these instruments. Therefore, it becomes necessary to search for and use a variety of techniques so that valued evidences of growth can be secured, not only with reference to the acquisition of information, but, also on all important behaviors for which we are working,

Any adequate program of evaluation, then, should involve the following steps:

1. Formulation of objectives in behavioral terms.
2. Development of techniques for gathering evidences of growth in these behaviors.
3. Interpreting and using the data collected.
4. Recording and reporting the results.

IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

The schools of the South earnestly desire to function as a forceful factor in the solution of problems of health, recreation, consumer education, occupation, family life, intercultural relations and citizenship needs of the people in the Southern Area. If the school is to make its fullest and ablest contribution to Southern living, the teacher must make hers in the same degree. To do this requires knowledge and understanding of the students and ability to work with them, as well as ability to be an effective citizen in her community.

Regardless of past training, whether it be much or little; regardless of past experience, whether it be long or brief; regardless of past efficiency as a teacher, whether it be great or small, continued success in teaching means continued growth in the following behaviors:

1. *Sharing in planning the over-all school-community program*

The teacher competent in this behavior will have a comprehensive understanding of the general field of education and apply that knowledge in helping plan the school-community program. That this knowledge be effective, the teacher must be able to work with other staff members and with the community in a give-and-take relationship. The teacher takes into account the opinion of lay people on educational matters. This teacher expresses her opinions in forming school philosophy and is sympathetic with views divergent from her own and takes into account the views of other staff members whose work may give them a wider point of view.

2. *Understanding and providing for the satisfaction of adolescent personality needs*

A teacher competent in this behavior recognizes guidance as closely allied with good teaching and assumes responsibility for guidance. The teacher also recognizes guidance as an organized service rendered to the pupils. Being aware of the differences in teacher competencies, the teacher understands why teachers other than herself may be called upon to do special counseling. The teacher recognizes adolescent personality needs, e.g., the need for affection, status, social and physical adequacy, self-dependence, security, and emotional stability, and engages in classroom activities to meet these needs. The teacher makes use of a variety of sources in gathering evidences such as questionnaires, intelligence tests, case studies, growth reports, self-rating sheets, anecdotal records, interest tests, interviews, statements of adolescents, logs, etc. in guiding pupils.

3. *Providing working situations through which democratic attitudes and values are developed toward all groups in the community*

The teacher makes use of surveys, excursions, and similar activities to help students think through community problems and make suggestions for improvement; where possible, student participation in the actual improving becomes a valuable learning experience. The teachers help students see the cause and effect relationships in human behavior. The teacher analyzes with them assumptions which pupils make regarding all racial and economic groups in the community and, where assumptions are not based upon scientific facts, makes such facts available.

The teacher provides working situations involving inter-ethnic and inter-economic groups in order to bring out understanding of all groups within the community culture. The teacher distinguishes between teaching a unit on inter-ethnic or inter-economic understanding whose objective is pointed toward a better *understanding* of the problems involved, and a unit whose objective points to the development of a skill, e.g. the preparation of a paper.

4. *Using procedures and techniques which will be conducive to community planning*

The teacher plans with students so that they will learn in school the things which have maximum meaning for them in improving their living in the community. This planning pro-

vides an opportunity for practice in arriving at group decisions based on group judgments. As adolescents become active participants in community planning with adults, the community moves in the direction of more effective community planning.

Since students remember that which they learn for a purpose, the teacher selects with students the problems for study which are real concerns to adolescents in order to develop adults with the skills and values needed for effective living in the community. She helps students to select the facts which will help them to understand the causal factors in current social problems.

5. *Stating objectives as specific behaviors and makes evaluations of these behaviors*

The teacher describes with students what a student is able to do who has certain characteristics in terms of thinking, feeling and acting. Teaching procedures are keyed to agreed-upon objectives and materials are selected on the basis of purposes to be realized.

The teacher competent in this behavior uses several ways of gathering data on student behavior as mentioned in Behavior II as a basis for making appraisals. The teacher plans cooperatively with other teachers on terms to be used in assembling these data and compares the degree of growth of students in the realization of the agreed upon objectives.

6. *Establishing friendly, understanding relationships with students*

The teacher accepts students as persons for what they can accomplish, and provides opportunities to explore possibilities for interest growth beyond the borders of the classroom. The teacher willingly becomes parent substitute in certain situations, and regards the child's search for an adult relationship outside the home as a sign of growth. Subject matter is chosen for its contribution to social adjustments.

7. *Finding ways to make optimum contribution to the school and community program*

The teacher analyzes and works within the opportunities and limitations of work symbols in use in the community, such as "Christian," "Progressive," "core program." The teacher works with the community in developing its worthwhile elements, as each community has a certain uniqueness. When the school staff has agreed upon a procedure, the teacher makes

a positive interpretation of the procedure in her contacts with lay groups.

The teacher understands and sympathizes with the basic fears and insecurities of the community.

8. *Participating actively in community life*

The teacher competent in this behavior works with the community in organizing activities which the community feels are desirable, such as forums, and recreation. He becomes a participant in existing community activities. Participation as a follower or a leader is desirable according to the activity's needs and the teacher's abilities. He appreciates the efforts of the community in developing a community life.

It is probably obvious that many teachers-in-service will need to develop certain insights and skills incident to such classroom approaches to the social studies as are described in this statement. A large part of the help which teachers-in-service will need must necessarily and appropriately be given by the colleges through such activities as summer courses, summer workshops, extension courses and services, consultant services, etc. Local administrators, in cooperation with teachers, can develop effective programs of in-service education in their own schools.

It seems desirable also, that new Southern teachers entering the profession from colleges should be prepared by their college experiences to undertake the kind of tasks incident to these suggested approaches. College students preparing for teaching, it would seem, should certainly have in their own college classes such experiences in democratic participation as they will later need to use in their work as teachers.

SUMMARY

Intimately bound up with the democratic ideal is the public school system. Charged with the responsibility of making effective the application of that ideal through the training and development of good citizens, the school occupies a crucial position in American life. This statement began then, with the assumption that the schools of the South recognize their responsibility to the region and are desirous of making the changes necessary to enable them better to perform their task. Generally, that task is the improvement of living conditions in the region. Specifically, it consists of a concerted attack upon a series of problems—poor health, poor housing, unemployment, occupational mal-adjustment, inter-group relations, civic incompetence, consumer inefficiency.

How shall the schools of the South meet their obligation to the region? The final answer is not given here. Indeed, it is implied that there is no

final answer but that the manner in which the Southern schools meet their tasks will be one of constant exploration—of trial and re-trial—effort and disappointment and, perhaps, an occasional retreat from an advanced position. Only the outlines of this process of exploration are given here—the formulation of objectives and their statement in behavioral terms, the development of effective evaluation programs, improvement of teaching techniques, in-service and pre-service teacher training, democratic school organization, community participation, changes in the curriculum, changes in administrative patterns, use of a wide variety of teaching materials—all of these are but part of the pattern of exploration which Southern schools will undertake in an effort to create a more effective educational program. There is no certainty here about which pattern of procedure will have the greatest value, for the value of each will fluctuate according to the local situation. The authors of this statement are certain of one thing, however: if pupils, teachers, administrators, parents, and lay members of the community will work together in an attack upon their common problems, living conditions in the South will improve. It is further obvious that to be able to assume these responsibilities upon entering the profession, the college experiences of prospective teachers, whether in teachers colleges or colleges of liberal arts, must be planned in terms of these competencies.

How do the Graduates of the Montevallo High School Experimental Program Fare in their Academic Work at Alabama College

BY M. L. ORR

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The experimental program at the Montevallo High School has as its purpose preparing for life those boys and girls who do not expect to attend college as well as preparing for college the approximate 20 per cent or 25 per cent of its graduates who expect to continue their education. This study, however, is directed toward an evaluation of how well the school, since it began its experimental program, has prepared its graduates for college work. The majority of the school's graduates who attend college attend Alabama College, a state-supported college for women located at Montevallo, Alabama. It was not feasible to secure figures from other colleges attended by the graduates of the Montevallo High School.

The Montevallo High School began to experiment during the year 1936-37 in an attempt to improve its high school curriculum. At this time a two-hour period was set aside in the seventh grade for experimentation. The teacher of this period was relieved of responsibility for teaching any of the regular courses during this time, and she was given instead the opportunity of working on the problems of concern to the seventh-grade pupils. Of course, subject matter and skills were used but only as they contributed toward the solution of the problems and felt needs of the seventh-grade pupils. All other phases of the seventh-grade work were carried on exactly as they had been carried on for years past.

During the year 1937-38 this two-hour experimental period was extended to the eighth grade, being used this year in both seventh and eighth grades. During the spring of that year the Montevallo High School was selected by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as one of the three schools in Alabama to experiment in curriculum revision. During the summer five or six of its teachers attended the Workshop set up by the Southern Association at Vanderbilt University.

During the school year 1938-39, carrying out plans made in the Vanderbilt Workshop, the two-hour experimental period was extended through the tenth grade and minor modifications were made in the work of the high school other than in the two-hour experimental period.

During the summer of 1939 a group of the Montevallo High School teachers attended the Southern Association Workshop at the University of North Carolina. As a result of the North Carolina Workshop plans, the high

school program was materially modified during the school term 1939-40. The experimental period was enlarged to a three-hour period and was extended to all grades in the junior and in the senior high school. In addition, much of the other work of the school was materially modified. During this year very few courses of the conventional type were given. Most of the work of the school dealt with student problems and student felt needs. Most of the subject-matter and skills taught were taught in connection with these problems and needs. Teachers assumed responsibility for helping students to discover their important problems and needs and to become concerned with working toward the solutions of these problems and the meeting of these needs. The long three-hour period, called the home-room period, was used by the teacher for personal, social, and academic guidance; for exploring the needs, problems, and interests of the students and for carrying on work with them in connection with these needs, problems, and interests. Each home-room teacher was concerned with the work of her pupils not only in the home-room period but also in all other phases of their work in the school. Her guidance activities extended to everything her pupils did in the school. By frequent conferences during the year with other teachers she kept in touch with the work of each of her pupils.

During this year the attempt was made to have nearly all of the work of each student grow out of activities initiated in the home-room. Other teachers were used as service agents helping on the needs and interests of students as these needs and interests were developed in the home-room. This was done by calling into the home-room teachers who could help on certain problems and by allowing students to go individually or in groups to the teacher who could give help. This required each teacher in the school to spend most of her day in working with students on a laboratory consultative basis in order that she might be free to work with students in this non-scheduled way. There was a relatively small number of groups meeting teachers at scheduled hours for continuous study for the semester or year. This was especially true in the fields of language and mathematics, although such groups were formed for the study of other fields also. These groups were generally made up of students expecting to attend college.

After the year 1939-40, the plan of having so much of the daily work of each student grow out of the home-room period was sharply curtailed, partly because of the loss of time and the confusion inherent in the mechanical operation of the plan, and partly because teachers came to realize that guidance and the initiation of problems should not be confined exclusively to the home-room.

During the year 1943-44, each grade had a two-hour home-room period. The philosophy of the home-room is essentially the same as that developed during the year 1939-40 except that the pupils' work outside of the home-room is not necessarily related to his work in the home-room. Teachers

meet regularly scheduled groups of students organized to study subject matter or to work on their needs or interests. Groups organized for the purpose of studying logically arranged subject matter for possible future use are made up principally of students preparing for college. In other groups, although the work may be within a definite subject-matter field, the emphasis is placed on the present needs and interests of the students and is often individualized to meet the needs of different individuals or of small groups of individuals. Many textbooks and other source materials are used instead of following one textbook.

Several articles by teachers have been written on different phases of the experimented program of the Montevallo High School.¹

Before the end of the 1939-40 school year, no graduates of the Montevallo High School had had any work in the experimental curriculum. Of course, the experimental program had had some effect upon other phases of the school, especially the spirit of the school and certain extracurricular activities. The graduates of the high school at the end of the 1939-40 year had had one year, their senior year, in the experimental program. All of their high school curriculum preceding their senior year had been of the conventional type. The graduates at the end of the 1940-41 year had had three years in the experimental program. These were the three senior high school years. All graduates of the year 1941-42 and subsequent years had had all of their high school work in the experimental program.

¹ Barnes, Virginia. "Consumer Education through Art," *High School Journal*, XXIV (January, 1941), 31-32.

Blair, J. C. "A Small High School Inaugurates a Pre-Flight Training Course," *Alabama School Journal*, LX (May, 1943), 14-15.

Hicks, Leon. "A Program for Individualizing High School Science," *High School Journal*, XXIV (February, 1941), 63-65.

Utterback, Elizabeth. "A Senior High School English Program," *English Journal*, XXX (December, 1941), 814-18.

Utterback, Elizabeth. "High School English Based on Social Problems," *Curriculum Journal*, X (December, 1935), 353-55.

Utterback, Elizabeth. "Peace: A Commencement Program at an Alabama School," *High School Journal*, XXIV (March, 1941), 131-139.

Varnell, J. B. "Junior II's Study Safety at Montevallo," *Alabama School Journal*, LVII (October, 1939), 10.

Walker, Vinnie Lee. "Working with Students on their Needs and Interests," *SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY*, VII (August, 1943), 331-47.

Table I below gives the number of Montevallo High School Graduates who have entered Alabama College during the past ten years.

TABLE I
ENROLLMENT OF MONTEVALLO HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
AT ALABAMA COLLEGE FOR PAST TEN YEARS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>		<i>Pupils Who Had Had Work in Experimental Program</i>			
	<i>1st Sem.</i>	<i>2nd Sem.</i>	<i>Fr.</i>	<i>Soph.</i>	<i>Jr.</i>	<i>Sr.</i>
1934-35.....	28	27				
1935-36.....	22	21				
1936-37.....	26	24				
1937-38.....	27	27				
1938-39.....	33	33				
1939-40.....	32	29				
1940-41.....	28	28	9			
1941-42.....	30	28	15	5		
1942-43.....	21	21	6	11	2	
1943-44.....	30	29	10	8	8	4

The table above shows that nine of the Montevallo High School graduates of 1939-40 entered Alabama College for the 1940-41 session. These graduates as above stated, had had only one year in the experimental program. This table also shows the number of students in the freshman and sophomore years at Alabama College for 1941-42; the number of students in the freshman, sophomore, and junior years for the year 1942-43; and the number of students in the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years for the year 1943-44. This study is concerned primarily with these students, as they represent the only graduates of the Montevallo High School attending Alabama College who had had any work in the experimental program.

Table II below compares the records of Montevallo High School graduates and all students at Alabama College for the past ten years in respect to making the honor roll and making some subject failures. Under "All" students, Montevallo High School students are included. The differences in the records of these two groups would be slightly greater if the Montevallo High School students had been eliminated from the "All" group.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS MAKING THE HONOR ROLL AND MAKING
SOME SUBJECT FAILURES AT ALABAMA COLLEGE FOR PAST TEN
YEARS COMPARING MONTEVALLO HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
WITH ALL STUDENTS

Year	Percentage Making Honor Roll		Percentage Making Some Subject Failures	
	All	M. H. S.	All	M. H. S.
1934-35.....	18.6	10.9	17.5	21.8
1935-36.....	21.4	14.0	18.3	18.6
1936-37.....	21.1	34.0	16.2	14.0
1937-38.....	22.3	31.5	14.2	13.0
1938-39.....	19.1	21.2	14.6	12.1
1939-40.....	20.7	21.3	13.9	14.8
1940-41.....	20.6	21.4	14.0	12.5
1941-42.....	20.1	22.4	14.6	20.7
1942-43.....	20.6	38.1	14.4	11.9
1943-44.....	22.2	37.3	15.9	5.1
Average first six years....	20.7	22.2	15.7	15.5
Average last four years....	22.2	29.3	14.7	12.6

In interpreting the above table let it be remembered that not until the college year 1940-41 had any of the Montevallo High School graduates been exposed to the experimental program in the high school. The college year 1943-44 is the first year in which all Montevallo High School graduates at Alabama College had had one or more years in the experimental program.

From Table II it is evident that for the past ten years the graduates of the Montevallo High School at Alabama College have made approximately the same record as all students in the matter of subject failures in college, but have made a somewhat better record than the average in respect to making the honor roll, especially during the last four years. During these last four years graduates of the experimental program began entering college, their number increasing through these years. The records for these four years were increasingly affected by the graduates of the experimental program.

Table III below compares the work in college of those Montevallo High School graduates who had had all or part of their work in the experimental program with similar groups of all students.

TABLE III

COMPARING THOSE MONTEVALLO HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES WHO HAD ALL OR PART OF THEIR WORK IN THE EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM WITH ALL STUDENTS IN SAME CLASSES AT ALABAMA COLLEGE

Classification	Percentage Making Honor Roll		Percentage Making Some Failures	
	All	M. H. S.	All	M. H. S.
Nine M. H. S. Freshmen compared with all freshmen. Year 1940-41...	14.1	23.5	22.1	17.6
Twenty M. H. S. Freshmen and Sophomores compared with all freshmen and sophomores. Year, 1941-42.....	15.4	18.4	22.3	26.3
Nineteen M. H. S. Freshmen, Sophomores, and Juniors compared with all Freshmen, Sophomores, and Juniors. Year, 1942-43.....	16.6	35.1	19.0	13.5
Thirty M. H. S. graduates in all four classes compared with all students in all four classes. Year, 1943-44.....	22.2	37.3	15.9	5.1
Consolidation of above four classifications.....	18.0	30.5	19.1	13.9

From the table above and the preceding table it will be seen that the Montevallo High School graduates who had had all or part of their work in the experimental program made approximately the same record in the

matter of college failure as did Montevallo High School graduates who had not had work in the experimental program and somewhat better in this respect than all students at Alabama College. In respect to making the honor roll, the graduates of the experimental program were distinctly better than both the graduates of the Montevallo High School who had not had work in the experimental program and the students as a whole at Alabama College.

For a number of years Alabama College has given the National College Sophomore Testing Program to sophomores at the end of the Sophomore year. The test was not given in 1941. The test is a comprehensive one put out by the American Council on Education and covered three principal fields in 1943—English, contemporary affairs, and general culture. In 1942 American History was given in addition. Under English the test covers vocabulary, reading, grammatical uses, punctuation and capitalization, spelling, sentence structure and style, active vocabulary and organization. The test on contemporary affairs covers political and military affairs, social and economic affairs, science and medicine, literature, fine arts, music, drama, and amusements. The test on general culture covers current social problems, history and social studies, literature, science, fine arts, and mathematics.

Tables IV and V give the results obtained from the Sophomore Testing Program at Alabama College in the springs of 1942 and 1943. These were the two years when graduates of the Montevallo High School experimental program were in the Sophomore Class at Alabama College at the time the test was given.

TABLE IV

SCORES MADE ON NATIONAL COLLEGE SOPHOMORE TESTING PROGRAM
GIVEN AT ALABAMA COLLEGE, SPRING OF 1943; COMPARING ELEVEN
SOPHOMORE MONTEVALLO HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
WITH ALL SOPHOMORES

	<i>All Sophomores</i>	<i>Soph. MHS Graduates</i>	<i>National Averages</i>
Average on English Test.....	57.8	61.5	59.0
Range on English Test.....	28 to 84	51 to 79	
Average on Contemporary Affairs Test.	62.4	83.9	78.9
Range on Contemporary Affairs Test..	3 to 177	30 to 146	
Average on General Culture Test.....	136.4	169.3	146.6
Range on General Culture Test.....	15 to 315	90 to 257	
Average on American History Test....	57.6	60.3	54.4
Range on American History Test.....	40 to 74	44 to 74	

TABLE V

SCORES MADE ON NATIONAL COLLEGE SOPHOMORE TESTING PROGRAM
GIVEN AT ALABAMA COLLEGE, SPRING OF 1944; COMPARING EIGHT
SOPHOMORE MONTEVALLO HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
WITH ALL SOPHOMORES

	<i>All Sophomores</i>	<i>Soph. MHS Graduates</i>
Average on English Test.....	54.4	61.8
Range on English Test.....	35 to 77	50 to 77
Average on Contemporary Affairs Test.....	66.8	85.9
Range on Contemporary Affairs Test.....	10 to 200	33 to 130
Average on General Culture Test.....	142.9	177.9
Range on General Culture Test.....	19 to 289	144 to 336

Table IV shows that the eleven 1942-43 sophomores who had graduated from the Montevallo High School made significantly better records on the Sophomore testing program than did all sophomores at Alabama College and that they were above national standards. On the English phase of the test, seven of the eleven were above the median of the class, three of these being in the upper quartile; on the contemporary affairs phase, eight were above the class median, five being in the upper quartile; on the general culture phase, eight were above the class median, five being in the upper quartile; on the American History phase, seven were above the class median, five being in the upper quartile and one of these making the highest score in the class.

Table V shows that the eight 1943-44 sophomores who had graduated from the Montevallo High School again made significantly better records on the Sophomore Testing Program than did all sophomores at Alabama College. National standards are not yet available for this test. On the English phase of the test, five of the eight were above the median of the class, all five of these being in the upper quartile and one of these making the highest score in the class; on the contemporary affairs phase, six were above the class median, four being in the upper quartile; on the general culture phase, six were above the class median, four being in the upper quartile.

There are two factors which might have influenced the record of the Montevallo High School graduates in their college work. Since Alabama College is located in Montevallo, it might be expected that a number of daughters of college faculty members might have graduated from the town high school and have attended Alabama College. It is assumed that the home environment of these girls might have been in their favor in the matter of success in college work. When it is realized, however, that Alabama College is a woman's college and a large majority of its teachers are women without

families, this factor does not loom so large. As a matter of fact, of the twenty-five or thirty Montevallo High School graduates in attendance at Alabama College each year for the past ten years, an average of only 2.5 students have been the daughters of Alabama College faculty members.

Another factor which might have influenced the results is the fact that some students who were not college material would have attended Alabama College because it is located in Montevallo, when they would not have attended college had it been necessary to go away from home. This factor seems to have some bearing upon the results as a few students were responsible for much more than their share of the failures as shown in the tables.

Tentative Conclusions

1. The Montevallo High School experimental program seems to prepare the above-the-average and superior student significantly better for college work than does a conventional high school program. A reasonable explanation of this assumption is that the experimental program provides individualization of instruction to a much larger extent than does the lock-step conventional program.
2. The experimental program seems to prepare the below-the-average and poor student for college work about as well as does the conventional high school program.
3. The conventional high school program, in content and methods of teaching, can be modified drastically without jeopardizing the ability of the graduate to do college work. This is of course, not assuming that any type of substitution may be made without jeopardizing the student's college work.

Some Suggestions About the Use of the Evaluative Criteria

BY J. G. UMSTATT
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From all sections of the United States has come the assertion that *The Evaluative Criteria* has been the most stimulating influence ever to touch American secondary education. The instrument has been in the main a plan for self-evaluation by the secondary school, one which has pointed the way to self-improvement. It has analyzed the main features of the secondary school program in a manner that has left room for creative thinking by the individual teacher and staff, and it has provided suggestions for constructive development. When applied with enthusiastic leadership, it has enabled schools to lift themselves by their own bootstraps and has awakened many individual teachers to new and fresh professional improvement. All persons who had a hand in its development deserve the praise of all professional workers in secondary education.

It is to be expected that the application of an instrument designed to appraise so comprehensive a system as the entire secondary school program would in the course of several years reveal imperfections. The use of *The Evaluative Criteria* is no exception, but it should be clearly understood that the weaknesses in this case are relatively insignificant when compared with the overall value of the instrument. Some of the deficiencies of the *Criteria* that have been discovered are those of organization and content, a type of deficiency the elimination of which would require a revision of the instrument; others are weaknesses of technique, some of which can be avoided in the use of the current edition without revision. Six of the shortcomings of technique are discussed below, followed by suggestions for their elimination.

First, the instrument as now used tends to promote unwholesome competition between schools. This tendency stems from the technique that assigns numerical values of 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 as "Evaluations" under each "Check-list," translates the "Evaluations" into percentiles, and presents the results graphically as "Educational Temperatures." In many cases this practice has not led to undesirable competition, but in other cases it has resulted in bitter animosity, comparable with overdeveloped football rivalries. In such cases the motivation for improvement has been the desire to beat the other fellow, and not the desire to improve the educational program for the youth served by the school. This result has led to embarrassments for visiting committees and to petty arguments, both of which have frequently resulted in higher evaluations than the school has deserved, and have therefore

NOTE: The author invites discussion from all interested persons.—EDITOR.

been injurious to the total program of the school. If the technique under discussion were an essential part of the *Criteria*, the harm done in the case of untoward competition might be considered a price to be paid for the good achieved elsewhere; but, as will be shown later, this device is an *unnecessary* elaboration within the *Criteria* and therefore the harm done in some schools bears no relation to the good achieved in others. Therefore from the educational standpoint such unfortunate results represent sheer losses.

Second, the basis for awarding the troublesome numerical evaluations mentioned above is quite invalid, a condition which makes the evaluations and the resulting "temperatures" equally invalid. An evaluation of 5, for example, is recorded if the school meets a given standard as well as the standard is met by the best ten per cent of schools within the membership of its regional accrediting association. No educator lives who knows how well the ten per cent of schools in the Southern Association or any other regional association meet any specific standard. The data for accurate knowledge on any standard do not exist. Thus, the assignment of the numerical evaluations is almost entirely guesswork because it is based upon an unknown. Furthermore, the assignment of scores may often be influenced by such considerations as "How many 5's have we given Bill thus far? Maybe we've been too tight." "Well, we cannot be sure, so let's make it a 3 and play safe." "Henry's job depends on this evaluation, so we'd better not score too low." "John is going to be on the visiting committee at my school next year, so I'm going to be easy on him." And so forth. It is not only completely unscientific but actually absurd to "evaluate" in such manner. Worse yet, the practice is vicious because some of the incorrect guesses overrate a poor school while others underrate a good school. And all the while the abler school people have discerned the invalidity of the practice and as a result have gradually lost their confidence in the entire instrument.

Third, the plan of using absolute values in the "Checklists" and relative values in the "Evaluations" is confusing to the school. Results have shown that even persons of considerable experience with the *Criteria* frequently find themselves using comparisons with other schools while marking the items of the checklists, where no such comparisons are in order. Sometimes, though less often, the appraisers are governed by the concept of absolute value when assigning numerical scores in the evaluations, where comparisons are really supposed to be made. Here again a non-essential elaboration within the *Criteria*, the numerical evaluation, is the root of the trouble. It causes two types of error. The use of the comparisons in the checklists causes the appraisals to be higher than they should be; and the influence of the absolute concept while assigning numerical ratings causes the scores to be lower than they should be.

Fourth, the use of both absolute and relative appraisals usually causes the school to emphasize the relative rather than to measure itself against abso-

lute standards. This point is related to problems one and three, discussed above, but is of more fundamental significance than either. It is in numerous cases entirely distinct from the conscious and unworthy competition referred to in point one, because it happens in schools that operate on a higher plane than that of undignified and otherwise questionable practices. Such schools sometimes innocently fall into comparison with other schools when no such comparison is intended, because of the confusion between absolute and relative values just explained under point three. At other times schools use the relative as an escape from the reality of the absolute standard. The result is far too often a definite tendency for the school to appraise itself on a relative rather than an absolute basis. Thus the standards are actually lowered far below the plane intended in the *Criteria*.

Fifth, the relationship between the awards given on the checklists and the numerical ratings given below the checklists as "evaluations" is not the same throughout the *Criteria*. This lack of a constant relationship is confusing. The relationship between a checklist of *commonly attained* standards and the "evaluations" which follow it is different from the relationship between a checklist of *rarely attained* standards and the "evaluations" which follow it. In the first case a large proportion of pluses might deserve low numerical evaluations, whereas in the second case a smaller proportion of pluses might deserve higher numerical evaluations. Many schools fail to understand this difference of relationship and either flounder in confusion or confidently pursue a course of errors.

Sixth, the symbols, +, —, o, used for marking the checklists, are confusing. Two of the symbols, — and o, as used, carry meanings that are contrary to their long-established connotations, the minus sign carrying a value higher than zero. Such a scheme might be justified if it resulted in value that could not be realized without the confusion. But such is not the case. Any three letters of the alphabet, with the possible exception of A, B, and C which carry connotations for school marks, would be better than +, —, o, because they would avoid the confusion that accompanies the use of +, —, o, and serve the intended purpose. (Letters are not recommended, however, as will be made clear later.) Obviously, it was a mistake to use the mathematical symbols in a way that differs from their accustomed use, but fortunately it is a mistake that can easily be remedied.

The first five of the six deficiencies may be avoided by omitting the technique of assigning numerical ratings on the basis of comparison with member schools of the accrediting association. If the "Evaluation" section beneath each checklist were simply skipped, the cause would be removed for undignified competition, for invalid estimates, for confusion between absolute and relative values, for over-emphasis of the relative at the sacrifice of the absolute, and for misunderstanding of the relationship between checklist marks and numerical evaluations. Ignoring the numerical ratings of the

present plan would not result in any loss of value in the total use of the *Criteria*, because the numbers assigned now are frequently the worthless results of the guesswork and the absurd tactics mentioned above. The loss of anything that is worthless leaves the loser as well off as he was before. The abandonment of the technique would, on the other hand, bring real gain by eliminating the negative effects of the practice. Under such conditions the only sensible thing to do is to stop using the comparative ratings by omitting the "Evaluation" that follows each "Checklist."

The sixth deficiency, the ill-advised use of +, —, o, may be remedied by substituting the numbers 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, and the symbol, o, with meanings as follows:

- 5 to mean that the school meets the standard completely as defined by best current thought.
- 4 to mean that the school is just short of the ideal implied or expressed in the standard.
- 3 to mean that the school meets the standard satisfactorily for practical purposes but not well enough to warrant pride in its accomplishment.
- 2 to mean that the school lacks several important elements of the standard and is therefore markedly deficient.
- 1 to mean that the school meets the standard to a degree that is barely perceptible.
- o to mean that the school does not meet the standard in any degree whatsoever.

If any school should desire more gradations than the six as defined, it might use decimals for intermediate steps between any two of the six degrees of proficiency.

A school that might wish to have a single number to indicate its status on a checklist could use its percentage of total possible score for such an index. For example, the total possible score on a checklist of twelve items would be 60. If the total of the school's twelve scores on the checklist were 30, the school's percentage of possible score would be 50, which, if the school so desires, might legitimately be transferred to the appropriate educational temperature chart, provided it was clearly understood that the graph represented a percentage rather than a percentile. Such a graph would represent the extent of the school's progress toward an absolute value rather than its position with respect to other schools. (Any item that did not apply to the school would be left unmarked and omitted from the calculation. Thus in a checklist of twelve items if one were skipped the percentage would be calculated on a possible score of 55 instead of 60.)

No claim of infallibility or perfection is made for the suggested plan. Subjective thinking would still determine the score for each checklist item; but in the judgment of the writer, the yardstick of an accurately defined

ideal held constantly before the school would give clearer meaning and greater validity to the score than is carried under the plan now in use. The elimination of the comparisons with an unknown that now accompany the use of the "Evaluation" section under the checklist and the elimination of the unaccustomed use of the mathematical symbols would result in greater simplicity and less confusion.

Of even greater significance would be the complete change of point of view of the school in evaluating itself: It would no longer falteringly try to rank itself among other schools on a given item, but instead it would resolutely place itself on a clearly defined position up the ladder toward perfection. Its eyes would no longer be outward upon the current scene; but instead, its vision would be upward toward the best it could become.

Editorial Notes

The Schools in Wartime

The article on "North Carolina Schools in Wartime" by the Director of Instructional Service in the North Carolina State Department almost completes the series we started in August. Only Alabama and Virginia remain to be reported by their high school supervisors. The nine articles that have been published offer much food for thought to those who are interested in our schools. They show strength and weaknesses and needs that should not be overlooked.

The schools have shown themselves strong in their adaptability to war-time needs. They have worked under disadvantages and have still made outstanding contributions to the war effort. They have shown ability to relax the letter of peacetime standards and at the same time preserve the spirit. On the other hand, they have shown themselves weak in ability to hold their personnel in the face of rising living costs and the meager salaries they were able to pay.

Some teachers went into the Armed Forces or other direct war effort, but the disquieting fact remains that the overwhelming majority who did not go to fight left the school-room in whole or in part because of salary considerations. Teachers' salaries are always vulnerable. In times of depression a state legislature can save \$250,000 a month by reducing the salaries of 25,000 teachers only \$10 per month, or for a nine-months term it can save \$2,250,000. On the other hand, the same legislature can anger the one hundred politically powerful sheriffs in the state by cutting their salaries \$500 a year and save only \$50,000. It can give the same salary cut to the next three most important officials in each county and still save only \$200,000. In other words, there are so many teachers that a small increase or decrease in their salary makes a considerable difference in a state budget; whereas the more powerful political officials can receive good salaries at a relatively small aggregate cost to the state. There is the further point that the obviously powerful officials of the county can make reasonable comparisons of their salaries with the salaries of men of equal training who hold business positions in the community. A moderately popular official can usually bring his salary up somewhat in line with the salaries of other people doing executive work. School superintendents, and to a much less degree high school principals and supervisors, have also profited by this ability to point out the inadequacy of their salaries in comparison with the salaries of other leaders of their community. Teachers, however, do not have the opportunity to drive such comparisons home, and in com-

parison to the training they are required to have their salaries continue low, with the result that rise in the cost of living such as we have had the last few years takes them from the classroom in great numbers. This weakness of the schools ought not to be, but it is a weakness everyone knows to exist and no one as yet has satisfactorily done much to remedy it. If this weakness could be cured, the other weaknesses brought out in the series of articles we have presented would be much minimized.

The articles indicate one very serious danger arising from the wartime situation. That danger arises from the fact that in adapting to wartime needs of the nation and in striving to hold adequate personnel to carry on, schools and to a certain extent higher institutions of education have become accustomed to waiving more than the mere letter of standards. The Southern Association and similar agencies face the problem of the most tactful but at the same time most vigorous assertion of minimum standards at the first opportunity. The state legislatures are trying to help remedy the financial plight of the schools, even to the point of raising teachers' salaries, but it is doubtful whether they are raising them as much as the cost of living has increased. And there is no doubt whatever but what there will be a move to cut salaries again at the first impact of any postwar depression or shrinkage in revenues. The "iron law of wages" still applies to teachers' salaries. Perhaps the Southern Association can do only a little to modify this law, but it has been able to do something; and it can start in time to act promptly and vigorously to reverse the inevitable wartime trend of regarding painfully achieved standards more lightly than we should.

"The Association of Colleges of South Carolina"

Dean Baker's article in this issue is the first of a series that we had hoped to start in the August *QUARTERLY*. There are eight others of the series already in hand for publication. South Carolina is the oldest association that has been reported, but it is interesting to notice that it is still more than six years younger than the Southern Association. The idea of organizing such a conference apparently occurred to some South Carolina college men as a result of the work of the Southern Association. It is interesting to note also that this particular conference has a tradition of meeting after the Southern Association in order to discuss the problems brought forth in the annual meeting of the section-wide association.

It is quite generally true of the state associations or conferences that they have worked as a harmonizing influence among the colleges in each state. The rivalries and bitterness of the late nineteenth century that existed among colleges and universities would appear more humorous than they do if they were not so pathetic. Bitterness between state institutions and private institutions and bitterness between the colleges of different denom-

inations were the rule in the 1890's in Southern education. Any president or faculty member of a college in the Southern Association of Colleges today would probably feel it necessary to apologize if he had occasion to express the common sentiments that even appeared in print forty-odd years ago as to some other institution or type of institution. The state conferences of colleges deserve much credit for changing this situation, and the influence of the Southern Association in bringing representatives of the colleges together played no little part in the organization and maintaining of these state associations. The admission of representatives from state departments of education strengthened both the state departments in dealing with secondary schools and served as a great influence in emphasizing to the colleges the functions of secondary education that were not college preparatory.

The college associations have also served a useful purpose in bringing together representatives of the faculty and of the administration of each institution for cooperative discussion with faculty and administration of other institutions. Many a college president has become interested in faculty problems presented on a state-wide basis to his college conference, when the first presentation of the problem in his own faculty would almost have inevitably appealed to him as a reflection on his administrative actions. Many a faculty member has seen problems presented and discussed by presidents of other institutions and come to a better understanding of the problems of his own president than he otherwise could have achieved.

The South Carolina Association is probably unique in having had the same president and the same secretary for thirty years. Sometimes these organizations have seemed almost childishly determined to recognize each institution in turn in the election of presidents and to be sure that the officers and executive committee always had so many men elected from tax-supported institutions and so many from church-related colleges and sometimes proper subdivisions as to junior colleges, teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, technical colleges, and universities. It might be added, however, that practically all of the associations that have been able to maintain continuity of work and reasonable records of their achievements have avoided changing the secretary every year or two.

The associations have taken two attitudes toward standardization. Some of them, as South Carolina, have refused to have anything to do with setting and enforcing standards. They regard their meeting together as simply for the friendly exchange of ideas and building up cooperation with one another and with the secondary schools. On the other hand, certain of the associations while following the pattern just mentioned as to cooperation, have also set up standards less rigid than the Southern Association but ordinarily including all the colleges within the state recognized by it in the certification of teachers. This policy has had the effect of gradually helping insti-

tutions first to meet the standards of the state conferences and then the standards of the Southern Association.

The state college conference is a good example of the type of voluntary organization through which democracy continues to work.

Our Higher Education: Strength Through Diversity

For fifty years Southern colleges and universities of various ideas and various types of support have been working together, and the pattern of cooperation that has evolved is the same throughout the United States. We have referred in the preceding editorial to the pathetic rivalries fifty years ago and the unwholesome bitternesses that existed with them. People who are vitally interested in living problems are naturally partisan: whatever a sincere man believes and practices he naturally thinks superior to some other possible belief or action. More basically still, what he believes and practices is *himself*, his ego. But school men whether they prefer tax-supported education from the university to the kindergarten or church-supported education, or endowed education that is free from complete control of either church or state, or some other form of control, have come to see during the present war the desirability in our present stage of civilization of having many and varying types of control for our higher educational institutions. One of the most disheartening things about the Nazi domination of the German people was the quickness with which the Nazis gained absolute control of the German universities. No nation had come nearer to making objective science a fetish than had Germany; and yet with the complete control the state had over the universities, books were promptly burned, professors dismissed or restricted, and science promptly diverted into propaganda for the master race.

In our own situation, when totalitarian politicians now and then seize a state legislature and with popular approval—mind you, it is always easy for the great demagogues to emphasize the needs of the masses and use those needs to throttle diversity of opinion—undertake to control every college and university in the state, the stoutest defenders of freedom of speech and thought for the state institutions are the administrations and faculties of the church-related and endowed colleges. Similarly, when doctrinal narrowness comes to dominate a church-related college, the other colleges and universities offer a way of escape to students and parents who do not wish to be hammered over the heads with dogmatic fulminations; and such an institution awakes to find that some of the choicest leaders of its denomination are going to state institutions for their training. Neither political leaders nor ecclesiastical politicians altogether approve of this situation, for it is a continuing threat to their power; but educators have cause to be thankful that this diversity of opportunity exists. The strength of the Southern

Association and of similar educational associations lies in the ability of educators of diverse training and theories to get together and work for the essentials upon which they agree.

The historical section in this issue of the *QUARTERLY* brings out diversity of educational philosophies rather startlingly. In the articles on the University of Virginia and on Randolph-Macon College, the differences between the points of view of Thomas Jefferson, who wanted no religious touch whatever in higher education even remotely encouraged by the state, and Stephen Olin, the first president of Randolph-Macon, is exceedingly interesting. The fact that the two great institutions have developed such friendly relationships is merely another proof of the fact that human beings are far more reasonable than their ideologies.

Another very interesting fact is emphasized in the articles on Randolph-Macon and Vanderbilt. It happens that both of these institutions were founded as a result of educational activities of the Methodist Church, and it was to be expected that there would be some transfer of personnel and leadership between the two. The record, however, shows this only incidentally. It shows that there existed before the Civil War and after it a free transfer of teachers and administrators among denominational colleges and state universities of the area that is much less marked today than it was seventy-five years ago. For example, Stephen Olin, the first president of Randolph-Macon, served as president of Wesleyan University, Connecticut, after resigning the presidency of Randolph-Macon. Landon C. Garland, the second president of Randolph-Macon, had temporarily taken a position as teacher at what is now Washington and Lee University, then became the second president of Randolph-Macon, resigned on account of his health and refused other college presidencies, taught at the universities of Alabama and Mississippi, served as president of Alabama for ten or twelve years, and finally in 1874 was called by Bishop McTyeire to be Chancellor of Vanderbilt. Professor E. L. Fox's sketch of Randolph-Macon and Professor Edwin Mims' sketch of Vanderbilt University contain several instances of this free exchange of staff among the colleges of this area and other areas of the country. This free exchange of staff has also made for better understanding among institutions of diverse control.

In Memoriam: Edward Conradi

On Friday afternoon December 1, 1944 Dr. Edward Conradi died suddenly at his home in Tallahassee. From 1909 to 1941 Dr. Conradi served as president of the Florida State College for Women. Under his administration the College came to occupy an outstanding place among higher institutions of the nation. In 1941 Dr. Conradi retired from active duty and became President Emeritus.

For more than thirty years Dr. Conradi was a regular attendant at the meetings of the Southern Association. When the Commission on Secondary Schools was organized he was chosen as a charter member at the Spartanburg meeting in the Fall of 1912. He served continuously as a member of the Commission until he retired under the provisions of the new constitution in 1939. At that time he was vice chairman, having served as chairman the year before at the Dallas meeting. During all these years Dr. Conradi rendered valuable service, not only to the Commission but also to the Association as a whole. He had the courage of his convictions and he knew how to take a stand, yet he could always do it without putting his own feelings into the situation. Thus he commanded the respect of the members of the Association as few men did.

The Association has lost a stalwart educator and leader; those who knew him have lost a friend who was indeed a great soul. His quiet, dignified, forceful life will remain a benediction to us all.

DOAK S. CAMPBELL, *Chairman,*
JOHN J. TIGERT,
SPENCER J. MCCALLIE,
Committee.

Forty-ninth Annual Meeting Postponed: A Letter from President Humphrey

February 2, 1945

To Members of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

For some time the President, the Secretary, and the chairmen of the three Commissions of the Southern Association have been planning the program for the meeting of the Association in Memphis on March 12-16. The program is practically complete.

About three weeks ago, however, the Federal authorities in Washington, through War Mobilization Director James F. Byrnes, announced that large conventions such as ours should not be held this year. Many inquiries having come to me regarding what procedures we should follow, I felt it necessary to call a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association to discuss the matter and plan a course of action.

The Executive Committee decided to postpone the meeting, without setting a definite date for the next meeting. Should it appear later that the meeting can be held, you will be notified. In the meantime, the Executive Committee decided that it would be well to have a meeting of the executive committees of the three Commissions and of the Executive Committee of the Association, this meeting to be held in Memphis on March 12 and 13 for the purpose of transacting business that needs to be transacted.

The postponement of our annual meeting is another contribution which school administrators are making toward winning the war. I am sure you will agree that the procedure we have followed is the one that should be followed. The Executive Committee regretted the necessity of having to postpone the meeting, but we are, of course, anxious to do whatever our national leaders consider to be to the best interest of our country.

Sincerely yours,

G. D. HUMPHREY, *President.*